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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

MOTIVATIONAL STYLE AND COACHING EFFECTIVENESS IN SOCCER

by

© ALEXANDER M. D. GORDON

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE

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submitted by ALEXANDER M. D. GORDON

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Physical Education.

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Date AUGUST 21 1981

DEDICATION

To my mother, Tina, of whom I am very proud.

ABSTRACT

This study was an attempt to examine the relationship between coach motivational style in soccer, measured by Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale, and coach effectiveness, measured in terms of team performance.

Data, from the 60 top level North American coaches who took part in this study, was collected by using a 4 part questionnaire. Descriptive analysis of sample responses revealed that the mean age was 39.9 years of age; 84.5% were married, with an average of almost 2 children each, and 8.6% were divorced or separated; 57.3% had been born in Europe but 59% had lived longest in North America; 80% had post-high school educational qualifications and 50% held post-graduate degrees; 83% were certified soccer coaches and 55% had experienced coaching other sports. While professional coaches had been coaching fewer years than amateurs they spent, on average, 4 hours per day more on soccer during the season and primarily on preparation and organization; 75% of the sample perceived their role at their club as only manager/coach.

Evidence from five instrument measures disclosed that 54.2% and 28.8% were interpersonally and task oriented respectively; 83.3% had 'harmonious' team atmospheres; 55% were satisfied with their own coaching ability and 11.7% dissatisfied; both professionals and amateurs felt that 'experience in games and practices' and 'thinking about their own team and how to improve their coaching' were the two most helpful self improvement aids; and finally only 30% were authoritarian by nature.

Of the total sample, 76.6% were considered 'effective' although comparisons made, with the CSA sample only, revealed that only 46.7% of 'effective' coaches and 31% of CSA 'satistifed' coaches were regarded as

'good' by a panel of 3 experts. Finally, the top 5 North American coaches, who appeared most regularly on peer rating lists, were all professional coaches operating in the NASL.

Inferential statistical treatments set at the .05 level of confidence, involved the t test and Chi square tests of independence and the Phi coefficient.

Conclusions

1. Coaching effectiveness in soccer is more likely to be associated with a coach's interpersonal motivational style , non-authoritarianism and whether he has team harmony in his club, than his task motivational style.
2. Coaches who spend more time on preparation and organization and more time with their team generally, are likely to be more effective.
3. The utility of using won-loss percentage data in helping to examine effectiveness in coaching is extremely limited.
4. Effective coaches, as opposed to non-effective coaches, appear to be better educated, better qualified and have wider playing and coaching experience.
5. Non-authoritarianism, which may be closely related to interpersonal motivational style, could be the best predictor of coaching effectiveness. Non-authoritarianism may also be linked with team harmony and the amount of time coaches spend with their teams during the season.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Undoubtedly the game of soccer today in both Canada and America is continuing to increase in popularity. More devotees each year, both male and female, are 'converted' from the more traditional North American team sports like football and hockey, for various reasons, and the game is now widely prosyletised both in and out of elementary and high school, recreation programmes and in higher education. The opportunity to play soccer professionally in the North American Soccer League (NASL), American Soccer League (ASL) and Major Indoor Soccer League (MISL) also attracts increasing amounts of 'home grown' players who appear in greater numbers on these leagues' rosters each successive season. The relative stability of these professional leagues, the NASL in particular, and the gradual improvement of playing standards have provided youngsters, and especially those disenchanted with their prospects in the more traditional team sports, ideal opportunities to identify with 'star' soccer players and teams, and of course opportunities to witness the execution of soccer skills at the highest level. Consequently it is anticipated that with growing media interest and business interests to sell the game by various methods and means, sometimes not entirely in the best interests of soccer's image, the game of soccer will eventually challenge, and perhaps surpass, those aforementioned traditional team sports, in popularity.

Inevitably along with this spread in popularity amongst soccer players, a plethora of soccer coaches will also emerge. This will occur possibly because North American society is a 'coach' oriented society and there is a belief that teams (not necessarily only in sport) cannot survive without the coach. But another reason may be because of the perceived needs

of both amateurs and professionals to better their organization, club management structure and, most important of all, create successful and winning teams. Soccer coaches in other words will most likely be spotlighted in North American society as much as their counterparts in football and hockey - and perhaps they are already?

Despite the platitudes uttered by parents, school administrators and professional sport team owners, therefore, soccer coaches in North America will not be employed to build character or to be responsible for the academic, business or interpersonal success of athletes. Their main responsibility will be and is, producing winning teams - which immediately poses a dilemma. Put simply by Coakley (1978) this involves

> "being held responsible for taking a group of fallible human beings, uniting them into a team that then becomes involved in events characterized by uncertainty and producing predictably successful results in terms of outcome" (p. 224).

While this dilemma is faced not only by coaches - many jobs are structured along competitive lines - unlike performances in other jobs the coach's performance has scheduled public appearances and is subject to review and evaluation not only by superiors, but also by the news media and spectators who have nothing more at stake in attending a game than the price of admission and some subjective identification with the teams. The production of a winning and successful team (in terms of titles and/or championships won) requires, it is assumed, effective teaching and coaching methods. Who can wonder however, when coaches, who are forced to operate on the basis of hunches and guesses and with players who make mistakes, become injury prone, tired or develop personal problems, become characterized by definable sets of traits? - e.g., dominance, decisiveness, control, ability to hide emotions and organization (Hendry, 1974) inflexibility and a low interest in the dependency needs of others (Ogilvie and

Tutko, 1966, 1970). Clearly the coach and in particular the professional coach, has to be task oriented and set the goals for his club regardless of the opinion of others including players who may be earning more than the coach himself and hence be regarded 'more important' to the organization. But, does the coach need to behave in or use, an autocratic and authoritarian style of leadership implicit in the above mentioned personality characteristics of coaches - and, all the time? Leadership research tends to suggest not, but are coaches aware of this?

Korten (1962) has proposed that under conditions of stress, e.g., top level coaching, groups actually seek out and become more receptive to authoritarian styles of leadership but also, and perhaps more significantly, in the absence of group stress more democratic styles of leadership emerge and are preferred. Leadership style adopted under stressful conditions apparently affects group performance (Rosenbaum and Rosenbaum, 1971) so when the competitive nature of the group task is emphasized (stress condition), performance is enhanced under authoritarian leadership style. Conversely under low stress conditions group performance becomes optimal under a democratic style of leadership. And finally, when the source of the stress/threat is external to the group including the leader (coach) the group actually becomes more cohesive under an autocratic style of leadership (Lott and Lott, 1965). An "external threat" in this study could be regarded as pressure from the fans, the media and (especially) from club owners.

The primary concern in this study therefore, is to try and unravel the enigma of coaching effectiveness and study the effects of different styles of leadership in a profession renowned for its ruthless and dogmatic coaching climate. If we can determine why some coaches are more effective than others by using a particular style of leadership

(or employing other techniques) our understanding of coaching situations, and those in stressful environments in particular, will help us train coaches to be more efficient, thus maximizing the potential of coaches and players and to avoid unnecessary and undesirable alienation of people from a game that after all has "only just begun" in North America.

Justification of the Study

Along with the development of soccer, as a game, at the 'grass roots' level and as a commercial business enterprise at the professional level, comes evidence of training procedures and programmes for coaches. This has been the task of soccer sporting bodies like the Canadian Soccer Association (CSA) and the United States Soccer Federation (USSF) and other soccer bodies of nations affiliated to the world soccer governing body, the International Federation of Football Associations (FIFA). While the onerous task of developing coaching schemes in Canada, for example, has been directed, engineered and operationalized - through provincial set ups coordinated by a technical director in Ottawa - these schemes and programmes predictably focus their attention, and those of coaches, primarily on skill acquisition. The CSA in all levels of its coaching schemes, has not included or introduced information about leadership style in coaching situations, and the soccer associations (not only the CSA) adhere only to general teaching principles like 'good instruction', 'good preparation and organization' and refer to 'tone of voice', 'use of demonstration' and 'activity rather than words'. They do not, in other words, suggest how coaches could or should behave towards their team or players in either stressful conditions (e.g., a game) or non-stressful conditions (e.g., a training session).

But soccer associations are not the only sporting bodies that seem to have assumed that 'suitable' coach behavior patterns are learned, somehow, through experience. Canada's Coaching Association (CAC) neglected to 'cover' this aspect of leadership in sports in their booklet (actually titled) "How to be an effective coach" (CAC, 1975) and a cursory glance at the chapter titles and contents indicate again that "coach effectiveness" is presumably inclusive in methodological and procedural rules and practices. Even in the chapter entitled "how to use psychological knowledge" the coach's behavior is assumed to be effective - if he gets his methods correct and the athletes' behavior in proper perspective in different situations. The coach's own motivational style, in other words, is neither examined nor explained and presumably not regarded to be important.

Perhaps then it is time for coaches to learn the best ways of approaching different types of soccer coaching situations and how to give effective leadership in both stressful and non-stressful situations. This study may provide useful insights to this end.

Secondly research focused on a particular sport group provides the opportunity for studying small group variables like role structure, rules of conduct, cooperation, competition and intergroup and intragroup conflict. Sport groups like soccer that particularly emphasize the importance of winning also offer objective measures of group effectiveness in terms of winning margins, e.g., won-loss percentage data. Schafer (1966) maintains such groups offer ideal settings

> "for the study of the effects of such variables as membership composition, cohesion, informal norms, <u>leadership</u> and social environment on the attainment of group goals" (cited in Loy et al., 1978, p. 69 emphasis added).

This study will hopefully elucidate some of the group dynamics that are

prevalent in soccer by concentrating on group leadership which is recognized as a special aspect of group composition and group cohesion.

Finally Fiedler's Contingency Model, which is one of the most prominent in the area of leadership, has scarcely been researched using the athletic context. Those studies that have attempted to increase normative data regarding coaching effectiveness at any level and in various sports using Fiedler's Contingency Model have been generally unsuccessful. Therefore an examination of the motivational styles of top soccer coaches will help increase knowledge on coaching effectiveness and perhaps help substantiate the use of this current model of leadership which has seldom if ever been validated in the sporting context.

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of the study involve an investigation of relationships between leaders' (coaches') characteristics and their team performances. It is anticipated that measures of effectiveness provided by Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967) are related to team success based on styles of leadership (measured by Fiedler's LPC scale).

The following relationships are most important in the study.

1. coaching effectiveness and:
   - leadership style; degree of authoritarianism; team atmosphere; coach role perception and time spent on coaching or soccer related activity in and out of season; coaching qualifications and educational data
2. coach authoritarianism and:
   - leadership style; coach age; years of coaching experience; playing experience; job tenure; coach role perception and number of captaincy years

3. leadership style and:
   - coaching experience; team atmosphere; coach role perceptions; time spent on coaching or soccer related activity in and out of season and playing experience; job tenure and marital status
4. peer rating of coaching effectiveness and coaching effectiveness (as defined in the study)
5. playing position and recruitment to head coaching appointment(s)

Definition of Terms

Coach. The head coach in all instances who is responsible for recruiting and releasing his playing staff and who has the final authority in regard to playing operations and decisions on tactics, etc. Amateur and university coaches are often in the 'hire and fire' category although they do not pay their players so they too can be regarded as 'coach' as defined here.

Coach authoritarianism. Measured by the Team-Head Coach Relationship scale. Coaches who score 78 and less will be regarded as authoritarian and coaches scoring 79 and above as non-authoritarian.

Coaching effectiveness. Measured in terms of won-loss data. A successful percentage indicating effectiveness, in won-loss data will be 51% and above.

Coach motivational style. Measured by scores on the Least Preferred Co-worker scale (LPC). As defined by Fiedler (1967) it refers to an underlying need structure which motivates coach behavior in the role of leader.

Soccer coaching experience. Refers to all soccer coaching years and experiences as either assistant, manager or head coach.

Soccer playing experience. Number of years experienced playing at top levels of amateur and professional soccer.

Team atmosphere. Measured by the Team (group) Atmosphere Scale (TA). As defined by Fiedler (1967) this emphasizes and explains the degree to which the coach feels accepted by his team and perceives harmony amongst his players.

Tenure. Whether or not the coach has job security in terms of contractual or retainer arrangements with his club.

Limitations

1. Information on all effectiveness measures is provided by the coach himself. Such a high degree of subjectivity is a factor which could lend itself to a systematic bias of reported scores.
2. Coaches may perceive an evaluative theme in some of the scales and consequently avoid extreme positions. As pointed out by Anastasi (1976) this creates errors of central tendency.
3. The sample of coaches at the time of study were more or less committed with their clubs. This depended in most cases on the level of involvement - e.g., compare the commitments of professionals and amateurs - so the time element and limitation may have affected a willingness to devote time (and concentration) on inventory items and the response rate itself.
4. It is difficult, even in business and industrial settings, to build a conceptual framework of leadership and the complexity of this phenomenon is not likely to be reduced in a sport setting (Stogdill, 1974).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

I. Leadership: General Background

Definition of 'Leadership'

Although most people have a general notion of what is meant by the term 'leadership', a number of different definitions have appeared in the psychological literature. Leadership may be thought of in terms of an individual's characteristics, e.g., the aggressive, dominant take-charge type of person is a leader in any situation. Or leadership may be thought of in terms of an individual's relationship with a group, e.g., the leader may be someone who holds a leadership office such as the presidency in the group. Or a leader may be the group member who possesses the highest level of skill for the task at hand. In a newspaper setting, the leader might be the person most knowledgeable about newspaper matters in sports settings and hence be the most powerful person on the sports editorial team. Or, finally, you may think of a leader as someone who performs the leadership functions, someone who can plan the group's activities, act as an example and so forth.

Although each of these definitions emphasizes a different aspect of leadership, it can be agreed that all of them include the common element of someone who exerts more influence than the other members of the group. This, in fact, is the definition that has been used most frequently in the literature (e.g., Hollander and Julian, 1969) and the one used throughout this review.

Evolution of Leadership Theory:

An historical development of general leadership theory has been described and each stage is outlined as follows:

Leadership by Tradition

Traditional forms of leadership were, and still are, regarded as inherited. For example, many nations like the United Kingdom have royalty (kings and queens) while in ancient times, and in African villages today, the tribal chief's eldest son automatically becomes head of the tribe when his father dies. Inherited leadership supposedly brings stability and order, and professes reverence and dignity to countries (or tribes) who practice it.

Trait Theories of Leadership

Although the idea that leaders possess unique personality traits still continues to be "popular" today, for many years it was actually taken for granted that leaders were or had to be born and that they possessed unique and innate characteristics. Armies often based leadership potential on physical stature, presumed energy levels, power of voice, etc., and the 'list' for other groups in society included traits such as dependability, intelligence, integrity and aggressiveness.

Formal Leadership Functions

Following the trait approach, there was a shift in emphasis which concentrated on what effective leaders actually do, rather than what they are, or are not. Effective leadership studies found that leaders spent more of their time structuring the work of others. This instrumental approach posited that effective leaders (more than less effective leaders) controlled, organized, staffed and coordinated activities more efficiently.

Human Relations Theories

This humanistic approach to leadership highlighted the interpersonal relationships between leaders and their subordinates. Briefly it was assumed that good leaders were more effective in their dealings with people, gave them more emotional support, let them participate more in decision making and 'listened' more. In the sporting context the good coach would probably have been described as a 'players' coach.

Situational Leadership Theories

This more recent approach to leadership attends to situational variables which, combined with the personalities of the leader and players and the organizational climate (and perhaps other factors), determine climates for effective leadership. Accordingly effective leadership style in one situation may not work in another and good leaders are those who realize this, who are flexible and can therefore adapt to different situations (Williams and Wassenaar, 1975).

From the situational approach yet another avenue of research, the behavioral theory, emerged. Halpin (1967) suggested that to think leader behavior was determined exclusively by situational factors was to deny the leader freedom of choice and determination. But research now suggests that it is easier to think of leaders in more complex terms. Stogdill's compendium (1974) for example outlined leadership theory development in terms of personal-situation, interaction-expectation, and humanistic theories, and all of these elements are now encompassed in the 'modern' transactional approach. Before elaborating on this approach it is interesting to note that elements of the transaction approach are derived from 'great man' (trait) situation and behavioral theories. These different approaches were not chronologically developed however, and each approach or emphasis was pursued independently by its own group of scholars.

The transactional approach considers the quality of the relationship between the leader and his followers. Hollander (1978) has explained that behaviors associated with a leader are not limited to one person who acts alone. Whether explicitly or not, there is a dynamic relationship with followers who perceive and evaluate the leader in the context of situational demands. The transactional view refutes the idea suggested by traditional leadership theorists that the 'leader-follower' relationship is static and that the major purpose of leadership behavior is to organize and direct activities aimed at goal achievement for the group. Other activities are also involved and these include:

> "maintaining the operation (within the group), obtaining and using resources and reducing impediments to effective performance . . . also activities need to be achieved through an orderly and fair social process which . . . gives individuals due recognition for their contributions" (p. 38, Hollander, 1978)

In summary the development of leadership theory began with the oldest source of leadership - leadership by tradition. This hereditary basis for leader qualities was part of the 'great man' theory which claimed leaders were born. Both were part of the trait approach which stressed the personal characteristics of the leader and dealt both with who becomes a leader and what qualities make a leader effective - sometimes disregarding the differences between the two. What leaders actually did became the next development and focus of attention followed by how effective leaders were in performing their role. Interrelated with both these developments was the situational approach which emphasized the characteristics of the particular situation and task in which the leader and followers were mutually involved. The stress was on the demands made for particular leader characteristics. Extended from the situational approach and prior to the 'arrival' of the transactional approach,

contingency models were developed which attempted to specify which leader attributes were appropriate given certain contingencies in the situation. The evolution of leadership theory, however, rests momentarily with the transactional approach which considers concepts like the perception by followers of the leader's status and legitimacy.

Emergence of Leadership

Clear leadership patterns are much more likely to emerge in some groups than in others. For example, if you are in a large group with a short time in which to accomplish a complex and urgently desired goal, leadership is much more likely to emerge (Argyle, 1969). The probability that a group will have or will develop a clear leadership pattern depends upon a number of factors. In some situations such as business organizations, a leadership pattern is imposed upon the group by external authority. This is common in formal groups, and in such instances the group will almost certainly have a clear leadership pattern. In less formal groups, however, the probability that an unambiguous leadership pattern will emerge depends upon the characteristics of the group, the nature of the group task, and other situational determinants.

Group size is an important determinant of the emergence of leadership. In small leaderless groups the members may be able to coordinate their activities without a leader. In larger groups, however, a lack of leadership may result in chaos. This hypothesis is consistent with the findings of one study, in which the members of groups with more than thirty members placed more demands on the leader for coordination and tolerated more directive leadership than did the members of smaller groups (Hemphill, 1950).

Decision time and task complexity may also determine whether or not a leadership pattern will emerge. If the group members must reach decisions quickly, there may be a greater need for a leader to coordinate the group's activities. Similarly if the task is complex there may be a greater need for a leader.

The importance of the activity may also influence the emergence of leadership. If an activity is either trivial or urgent, the powers of the leader may be increased (Jones and Gerard, 1967). If the members of a group are faced with a series of completely trivial tasks they may delegate the authority to make decisions so as not to be bothered with such mundane tasks. Conversely, if the stakes are high, the members of a group may also be more likely to follow a leader. In time of war, for instance, a leader may assume more power than in peace time. Perhaps people become more task oriented in times of crisis, an orientation that creates a preference for leaders who are directive and who can get the job done (Gustafson and Thomas, 1970). It may be that only when decisions are of an intermediate level of importance that the group members are unwilling to concede their decision-making power to the most influential member.

It is clearly evident at this point that the climate for leadership emergence in top class soccer is favourable. For example, top amateur teams and of course all the professional sides, have formal lines of communication and strategies for decision-making. Soccer clubs are usually large groups often comprised of more than two teams and their task, winning, is most prominent and uppermost in the minds of players and supporters alike. In other words, for these 3 reasons a leader (head coach) is required. But while these factors alone make soccer well-disposed to leadership emergence outwith game situations, so also is the

task complexity and decision time factors during games. Coaches are required very often to make speedy tactical changes that even seasoned professional players cannot 'read' in the heat of competition. Head coaches, rather than players, have very often swung the course of games by making incisive changes in line-ups during games or giving specific instructions to their players. Their leadership value in such situations in amateur and professional soccer is indisputable.

But the probability of leadership emergence in a group can also be influenced by other variables. Agreement among members, for example, about who should lead increases the frequency of leadership emergence (Banta and Nelson, 1964). Also, leaders are more likely to emerge in a centralized than in a decentralized network (Leavitt, 1951) and groups with easy tasks exhibit more role differentiation and permit leaders to exercise more influence than groups with difficult tasks (Negata, 1966). Personalities of group members and the general cultural expectations of those involved can also influential variables in the probability of leadership emergence.

General Characteristics of Leaders

If the main determinant of leadership is the possession of unique leadership traits, it would follow that leaders would differ systematically from followers, regardless of the setting. This approach to studying leadership, called the trait approach, was used extensively in the United States between World War I and World War II. Literally hundreds of trait approach studies were carried out using every conceivable trait from height and weight to more "psychological" characteristics such as self-confidence and dominance. These were correlated with leadership in settings as disparate as nursery schools and prisons.

The result of this enormous amount of research produced some inconsistencies but it was concluded that the average group leader exceeded the average group follower in respect to three broad classes of characteristics. First, abilities relevant to the group goal (general intelligence, scholarship, verbal facility, insight into situations, adaptability, etc.); second, interpersonal skills (cooperativeness, dependability in exercising responsibilities, social participation, popularity, etc.); and third, motivation to be a leader (initiative, persistence, etc.) (Shaw, 1976).

After an extensive review of the literature Stogdill (1974) concluded:

> "The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in the pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons' behavior and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 81).

Leadership Behavior

Once a person emerges as the leader of a group, how does that person lead? The research in this area shows that, first of all, leadership includes a variety of behaviors and second, that there are a number of different styles of leadership, the relative effectiveness of which depends largely on the situation.

One straightforward approach to find out what leaders actually do involved members of Air Force crews and two predominant themes of leadership behavior emerged. First, consideration - the extent to which the leader was characterized by warmth and trust in personal relationships, and was willing to explain actions to subordinates and allow them to participate in decision-making; and second, initiating structure - the

extent to which the leader organized the work done by the group, set standards of performance, followed routines and made sure that the leader-subordinate relationship was clearly understood (Halpin and Winer, 1952). A number of other studies have confirmed the importance of these two factors of leadership behavior (e.g., Greene, 1975; Bartol and Butterfield, 1976).

Group conditions, such as stress and the amount of support for the leader often influence what a leader does. For example, Fodor (1976) created stress in experimental groups by having one member disparage the task and the supervisor. He found that supervisors under stress tended to use authoritarian methods of control and gave lower pay raises and evaluation to recalcitrant members than supervisors in a non-stressful situation. One study has shown also that leaders who have the unanimous support of followers make riskier decisions than those who do not have such support (Clark and Sechrest, 1976).

But of all the factors that influence leadership behavior, the demands of the situation may be the most important. What a leader must do is largely determined by the requirements of the situation. For example, Wofford (1970) found that when employees in an industrial setting were asked to describe their supervisor's behavior five leadership patterns were noted:

1. planning, organizing and controlling of the group's work,
2. use of control and authority,
3. concern with maintaining good interpersonal relationships with followers,
4. concern with personal feelings of insecurity, and
5. motivation toward self-achievement.

Aronson (1972) found that to become a successful T group trainer a leader

has to become involved in the group, help the group members work through their encounters, make sure that none of them are psychologically damaged and lend support to the group members. In contrast, to be a successful mayor of a large American city, Royko (1971) maintained that a person may have to become adept in the art of using political patronage, making deals with dissidents and using the large city bureaucracies. As Carter et al. (1950) have indicated therefore, leadership behaviors do vary from situation to situation depending on the demands inherent in each situation on the leader.

Styles of Leadership

The main focus on how to measure effectiveness in leadership has been on leadership styles. Two aspects of leadership style in particular which have been studied intensively are the democratic versus authoritarian style and the person-centered versus task-centered style.

In a pioneering study by Lewin et al. (1939) subjects in the authoritarian condition were more discontented with one another and were more aggressive towards one another than were subjects in the democratic condition. Although the autocratic group produced larger quantities of work the quality of work (as judged by experimentors) of the democratic group was judged to be higher. Subsequent studies (e.g., Shaw, 1955) have consistently supported the findings about member preferences for democratic leaders but evidence concerning production either shows no difference or shows that the autocratic leader is more productive.

The hypothesis that in certain circumstances people may want authoritarian leadership has been supported by the results of several studies. For example, Bass (1960) explained the frequency of dictatorships in underdeveloped countries by suggesting that emerging nations,

under stressful circumstances, prefer more directive leadership. Also Gibb (1969) noted that in situations in which speed and action are urgently needed, an authoritarian form of leadership may be preferred.

In regard to task-centered and person-centered styles of leadership Fiedler (1967) and his associates maintain that effective leadership depends on the situation. Fiedler argued that three characteristics of a group situation determine how favourable it is to leadership. First, the leader's personal relations with the group, the extent to which the leader is liked and respected; second, the task structure, the extent to which the work roles of the group members are spelled out in detail and third, the leader's legitimate power, the extent to which the leader has access to rewards and punishments for the members of the group. It was hypothesized that in situations very favourable to leadership and extremely unfavourable for leadership the task centered leader would be more effective than the person-centered leader. If the situation is moderately favourable, however, the person-centered leader would be more effective than the task-centered leader.

Although not all the results of studies using Fiedler's 'Contingency Model' of Leadership Effectiveness have been consistent with Fiedler's hypotheses (e.g., Graen et al., 1971) most of them have supported his predictions. Consequently both 'task-oriented' and 'interpersonally-oriented' leaders can be effective - provided they are in the right situation. But can leaders change their styles of leadership in different situations? Research on this tends to conflict. For example, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) in agreement with Fiedler, contended that effective leadership is a function of the leader, the followers and situational variables, and that

> "effective coaches, like successful managers in industry, seem to be able to vary their style with the needs of the situation" (cited in Straub, 1978 p. 390).

But Fiedler et al. (1976) in a booklet designed to improve effective leadership in different situations, assume that leadership style is a permanent trait or disposition and thus the leader must modify his situation or choose situations that would suit him or her best in order to maximize their effectiveness. In other words, a leader's style, determined by using the LPC scale, and according to Fiedler, is regarded as stable and only by changing inherent "situational variables" can effectiveness be made more possible.

II. Leadership in Sport

Within sport research, the question of leadership has received only minimal and peripheral attention. However coaches, as representatives of a specific group of leaders, have been examined to determine whether different coaching types and styles are more effective than others.

Coaching Types, Styles and Behaviour

Straub (1978) categorized coach leadership style into three broad types. First, the 'hard driver' views his function as keeping order and to this coach discipline is the first ingredient of success. He is likely to parcel-out assignments to assistant coaches and action is expected; practices are well-organized, uniforms worn properly, and even hair may be groomed to suit the team's image. This coach believes that athletes should come to play and he is the 'boss'.

Second, the 'thoughtful persuader' manipulates the team to accept his approach to the sport. A blueprint or game plan is prepared by the coach and players are persuaded or manipulated to accept it. This coach

perceives himself as being more democratic than the 'hard driver'. After all, players are given a chance to voice their opinions before he persuades them to accept his already prepared game plan.

And finally, the 'friendly helper' takes a laissez-faire approach to coaching and avoids taking a stand for fear of being called authoritarian. As a result there are too many 'chiefs' and not enough 'Indians' and the team's cohesion (and probably success, too) flounders. This approach is likely where coaches want to cover for their own inadequacies.

In a second study by Percival (1971) positive and negative coaching types were presented, in a rather lighthearted manner, but this survey is particularly interesting in that the athletes' ratings of coaches were compared with the coaches' ratings of themselves. The most marked discrepancy occurred in the area of personality and of the coaches, 72% scored themselves as being a positive 'coaching personality' whereas only 32% of the athletes gave the same positive rating. Included among the more "positive types" of coaches were:

1. the supporter - who is always on the athletes' side giving emotional support and admonishing for mistakes when appropriate.
2. the shrink - who is well-equipped to motivate players to optimum levels before competitions and able to deal with defeat as well as victory.
3. the tourist - who can relate to all team members, substitutes and stars, and who spreads himself/herself socially and technically giving everyone relatively equal attention.
4. Mr. Cool - who remains unruffled under stress of competition, and is able to make "cool" decisions. Mr. Cool administers helpful criticism to athletes in private, and can settle down players when they become too excited.

More numerous were Percival's categories of "negative coaching types", only a few of which are listed here.

1. the insulter - by far the most disliked coaching type who dispenses sarcasm in large amounts.
2. the shouter - the athletes perceive this coach as basing his success on the decibel rating he is likely to achieve while yelling at team members.
3. 'Hitler' - perhaps self explanatory!
4. the scientist - the coach who becomes so engrossed in the "latest findings" that he double thinks himself into defeat, or so confuses his athletes that they do not know what to do in practices, training and games.
5. General Custer - the coach who "goes down" with an antiquated idea or strategy, refusing to change his mind in the face of athletic disasters.
6. Shakey - the nervous mentor who smokes two cigarettes at once during games, transmitting his nervousness to his players. 'Shakey' is closely related to what Percival named the "choker" - a coach who may remain cool during practice but who goes into shock when the contest starts.
7. the hero - the coach who is constantly concerned about everyone knowing that he or she is indeed the coach. The coach who plays this role is always highly visible, constantly congratulating winners, while perhaps ignoring losers with whom he finds it difficult to identify.

It should be remembered that the stresses inherent in athletics may often engender hostilities in the athlete, and at times this anger may be directed toward the coach. Percival makes the point that coaches should realize that anger directed toward them may be hostility which the athlete actually feels towards himself, his opposition or the situation and coaches

might pause to reflect as to whether this is indeed the case before (as is usual) reflexively retaliating to the player concerned.

In a third study by Swartz (1973) which was specifically designed to assess leadership styles, four different coaching types were compared - laizzez-faire, democratic-cooperative, autocratic-submissive and autocratic-aggressive. The styles 'speak' for themselves, and were compared with 'successful' (won-loss record over 50%) or 'unsuccessful' (won-loss record less than 50%) data in a sample of 72 collegiate coaches in America. Swartz found that successful and unsuccessful coaches employ essentially the same leadership styles.

Korten (1962) has proposed that under conditions of stress, e.g., top level coaching, groups actually seek out and become more receptive to authoritarian styles of leadership. Also, and perhaps more significantly, in the absence of group stress, more democratic styles of leadership emerge, and are preferred. Leadership style adopted under stressful conditions apparently affects group performance (Rosenbaum and Rosembaum, 1971). When the competitive nature of the group task is emphasized (a stress situation) performance is enhanced under authoritarian leadership style and conversely under low stress conditions group performance becomes optimal under a democratic style of leadership. Finally, when the source of the stress/threat is external to the group including the leader (coach) the group actually becomes more cohesive under an autocratic style of leadership (Lott and Lott, 1965).

Sage (1975), commenting on the present literature on coaching-leadership styles in sport, concluded that not enough evidence exists to make any definite statements about the effectiveness of different leadership styles employed by coaches. However, he suggested that:

> "if coaches' practices follow trends in industrial management, we might expect to see leadership in sport become more player centered, and more emphasis given to player input to the decision-making functions of team organization" (Sage, 1975 - cited in Ball and Loy, 1975, p. 418).

Personality and Value Orientations

Research aimed at establishing whether or not leaders in sport have unique characteristics does appear to have produced some significant features. Carter (1965), for example, found a predominant mesomorphic component in male and female physical education teachers and Cratty (1968) has stated that physical size and athletic prowess are important factors in ascendency to leadership positions at particular age levels.

From a more social psychological perspective Hendry (1973) concluded, from an extensive literature review concerning British physical educators, that there is a stereotype for physical educationists. This is comprised of both physical components (cited above) and psychological characteristics similar to those found by Locke (1962), in an American study. Locke found that physical education teachers and high school coaches had a need, similar to other secondary school personnel, to obtain support and affection and nuturance. Locke's sample scored higher on the need for affiliation, that is, to have many friends, and lower on the need for dominance. In critical analysis and reference to the specifically personal character of coaches, however, Locke's findings are almost reversed, in studies from different levels of sport.

Jack Scott (1969), for example, who came down hard on intercollegiate sport programs and on college coaches in particular, maintained that:

> "for every relaxed, understanding coach . . . there are one hundred rigid, authoritarian coaches . . . . The typical university coach is a soulless, back-slapping, meticulously groomed, team-oriented

> efficiency expert . . . for most coaches, the athlete is significant only to the extent that he can contribute to a team victory" (Scott, 1969, p. 61).

Scott also maintained that the genesis of all 'bad' coaching is in the personalities of individual coaches themselves. He explains:

> "Psychologists who have done extensive psychological testing on college coaches found them to be one of the most authoritarian groups in American society; they often outscore policemen and even career military officers on measures of authoritarianism" (Scott, 1969, p. 75).

In a later publication Scott made further references to the personality structure of coaches.

> "Coaches as a group are rather insensitive in their interpersonal relationships and . . . in an effort to produce winning teams they will quite readily manipulate and exploit others" (Scott, 1971, p. 32).

Hendry (1974) has also characterized coaches as having a definable set of traits, e.g., dominance, decisiveness, control, calmness, ability to hide emotions and organization.

In another study of coaches, from four major sport activities (basketball, baseball, football and track) two personality traits in particular were believed to interfere with effective interpersonal relationships of athletes.

> "The first was the very low tendency to be interested in the dependency needs of others . . . and the second was related to inflexibility or rigidity in terms of utilization of new learning" (Ogilvie and Tutko, 1966, p. 30).

The findings published by Ogilvie and Tutko were (and still are) highly controversial, but work by Sage (1974, a.b.) has provided other measures of coaches' personalities and also value orientations. Sage's two studies indicate that coaches may not be insensitive manipulators of people or uniquely conservative in their value orientations and attitudes. This characterization of coaches, however (reviewed in detail in Sage,

1975) is generally consistent with the following conclusion:

> "We know that coaches are aggressive people, self-assertive; we know that they are highly organized and ordered . . . they will listen to others - pay little attention to what others say, but they will listen; and they have fierce psychological endurance . . . . But they are also inflexible in their profession as coaches . . . and they dislike change and experimentation" (Ogilvie and Tutko, 1968, p. 73).

Personality Descriptions of Famous and Successful Soccer Coaches

Characteristics of some outstanding soccer managers and coaches, past and present, in the world today are briefly described below. Quotes are taken from Barrett (1973).

Don Revie (Leeds United F.C. and England)

> "Revie's shrewdness and energy, his expenditure, his handling of youth, and his shrewd selection of assistants resulted in Leeds United becoming a power not only in England but in Europe . . . Yet his greatest feats were his handling of Jack Charlton and Billy Bremner, two rebellious talents who had never fulfilled their promise" (p. 216-217).

Bill Shankly (Liverpool F.C.)

> "With his mixture of shrewd buys and local products, plus an inimitable knack of instilling his own supreme confidence into his players, Shankly created a robust but sportsmanlike side that never knew the meaning of defeat" (p. 234).

Jock Stein (Glasgow Celtic F.C. and currently Scotland)

> "Stein, without question, is the most successful manager ever to emerge on the Scottish scene, setting standards never before sought, let alone achieved . . . his willingness to learn from other countries and study every facet of the game has pushed the club (Celtic) to the forefront as a soccer power . . . he proved he was capable of reaching new heights with fresh young talent. He is untiring in his quest to keep the club at the top. Consequently he treats every club and opposing player with the utmost respect. At every opportunity he studies the game at all levels. Distance is no handicap, and in any week he could be found at games up and down Britain. Stein lives totally for football, gleaning knowledge from every excursion he makes" (p. 244-245).

Helmut Schoen (Herthe Berlin and West Germany)

> "tall, courteous manager of the West German team that won the 1972 European Championship . . . Schoen is not a strict disciplinarian . . . and there may be some truth in the criticism that he lets his serious players dictate to him. Schoen . . . thrown into the hotel pool by his players at Leon during the 1970 World Cup . . . knows his players are dedicated professionals who can be led and guided without regimentation" (p. 229).

Rinus Mischels (Ajax Holland and L.A. Aztecs)

> "if his strict discipline was not always popular with his players his methods enabled Ajax to win three titles in a row" (p. 179).

Sir Matt Busby (Manchester United and Scotland)

> "Busby always believed in natural footballers, and his belief was largely justified even in times of regimentation" (p. 59).

Helenio Herrera (Inter-Milan, Italy, France and Spain)

> "the highest paid and most flamboyant manager of his time and the high priest of catenaccio. He has always been a firm believer in involvement and motivation. When, immediately before going to Milan, he successfully managed Barcelona, he encouraged all kinds of pre-match rituals. Players would dance about shouting slogans. Then, at the climax of it all, they would put their hands on the ball and cry, "The European Cup! We must have it! We shall have it!" When he went to Inter, he posted notices in the dressing rooms: Defence: less than 30 goals! Attack: more than 100 goals! (p. 70).

While these gentlemen are undoubtedly renowned for their effectiveness in terms of successful coaching at club and international level probably the most celebrated English speaking soccer manager of all time has been Sir Alf Ramsey who coached England's World Cup Champion Side in 1966. The following extracts describe Sir Alf first as a player and then as a manager (coach) with an interesting connection made between the two.

> "As a player Sir Alf was a student of the game. He didn't just play it: he lived it. He had playing principles and was prepared to abide by them. There was his own superb confidence in

> his own ability, his own judgement, his own decisions. He seldom believed, even then, that he could misread a playing situation . . . . Superior mind? Well he did not lack intelligence . . . there was a certain shrewdness, a certain air of assurance, a certain quiet faith in his own words that lifted him out of the rut of people who say things without conviction or say them expecting to be contradicted . . . . His own teammates called him 'The General'. He skippered them off the field as well as on. He was with them, never really of them. Aloof's the word for it . . . he was never a good mixer" (Finn, 1966, p. 3-4).

> "Ramsey's approach to the game, his unfailingly thoughtful play made it probable he would succeed as a manager, and so he did . . . Quiet, intense, passionately dedicated to the game. Ramsey built his success and his managerial reputation on the fact of being a player's man . . . and if this image, over the ensuing years, would not always stay refulgent, there is no doubt that it was his strength during the years which led to his success in 1966. However terse and taut he might be with the world at large Ramsey with his players was generally relaxed, friendly, avuncular, even humerous, cheerfully joining in their training games, never losing his authority but never wielding it in a paternalistic manner" (Glanville, 1973, p. 175-176).

Based on the reports and descriptions of all of the above coaches, two 'types' of successful coaches emerge. First, the strict disciplinarian (e.g., Mischels) and the coach who believes in ritualized adherence to group motivation, (e.g., Herrera) and secondly, those coaches characterized by 'shrewdness'; - buying and selling of players, deployment of coaching tasks, etc. - 'man management' and motivational skills; the ability to instill confidence; the willingness to learn; respect for players and the opposition; a passionate dedication for the game; receptive attitude towards players; a belief in natural ability; a cheerful, relaxed and humerous presence - and in spite of all of this - an aloofness and an ability to maintain respect and authority.

The paucity of both autobiographical and biographical data on famous

soccer coaches is rather surprising. However, the researcher feels confident in his conclusions that while knowledge of the game and experience are assumed to be prerequisites for effective coaching, the most effective coaches have something else more measurable and finite about their behaviour and coaching style of leadership than simply 'charisma'. A clue as to what 'it' is might conceivably be found in the list of commonalities described above; but while no magic formula is apparent, the most common elements to emerge are 'player centered style of leadership', 'passion and dedication to the game' and an 'ability to command respect'. It is interesting to note that the comments on effective coaching by 3 professional coaches (Chapter IV, p. 77) tend to confirm these requirements of soccer coaches at the top level.

One study (Cooper and Payne [1972]), carried out with 17 First Division English soccer teams, produced data that relate directly to some of the above characteristics of coaches and general leadership qualities in soccer coaching. However, the study tried to determine, more specifically, which of these psychological orientations in both players and coaches (including assistants) were most predictive of group success. The orientations, studied by Cooper and Payne, were assessed through a questionnaire and consisted of the following:

1. Self-orientation - which reflects an individual who desires direct personal rewards regardless of the effects on others working with him. This person may be a dominating, introspective, and socially insensitive individual.
2. Interaction orientation - which reflects the mind-set of an individual who is concerned about forming and maintaining harmonious and happy relationships, at least in superficial ways. If these needs interfere with performance, the individual often finds it difficult to

contribute to the task at hand, or to be of real help to others.

3. Task orientation - the person who is task oriented is concerned primarily with completing the job, solving the problem, working persistently and doing the best job possible. Despite a seemingly selfish orientation, this person usually works well with a group, perceiving that contributing to the group effort will contribute to overall success in the task.

Cooper and Payne's findings are useful, in the light of the present study, and can be summarized as follows:

1. The more successful teams had significantly more players who were high on self-orientation and lower in interaction and task orientations. Players who were most successful, and competed in national and international games, were highest within this apparently selfish type of orientation.
2. In general, the coaches (managers and assistants) were lower in self-orientation than were the player groups surveyed, while the defense players were lower in self-orientation than were the forwards, which is to be expected.

Reflecting on this second finding, Cooper and Payne were uncertain whether former players who become coaches become less selfish, or whether players who were originally less selfish enter the coaching ranks. While it is not possible to study the levels of self-orientation amongst the coaches in this study, it will be interesting to note how many defenders as opposed to forwards have indeed become coaches.

Theories of Leadership in Sport

A typology of leadership theories, based on a scheme from Behling and Schreisheim (1976) provides a very good frame of reference from which to

examine the theories of leadership and in particular their relevance to sport and physical activity. The theories are divided into four categories according to whether the basic unit of reference has been the trait or the behaviours of the leader and whether these were viewed as being universal (general or all encompassing across a number of situations) or situational in nature (see Table 1).

Universal trait approach

This approach infers that, as in the 'great man' theories mentioned earlier, coaches (as a group of leaders) can be characterized by a unique and extraordinary class of dispositions. Studies that have already been mentioned (e.g., Carter, 1964; Cratty, 1967; Ogilvie and Tutko, 1966; Hendry, 1968, 1974) are examples of this universal trait approach to leadership.

TABLE 1

A Typology of Leadership Theories*

	TRAITS	BEHAVIORS
UNIVERSAL	Early "Great Man" Theory	Ohio State and Michigan Studies
SITUATIONAL	Contingency Model of Leadership (Fiedler, 1967)	Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971) Role-making Model (Graen and Cashman, 1975) Situational Theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, 1977) Adaptive-Reactive Theory (Osborn and Hunt, 1975) Normative Model of Decision-making (Vroom and Yetton, 1973)

*(Adapted from Behling and Schriesheim, 1976)

But as the 'great man' theory of leadership declined, and with it the trait approach, the research emphasis in leadership and sport shifted and attempts were then made to determine universal behavior characteristics of leaders.

Universal behavior approach

Both 'Ohio State researchers' (e.g., Halpin and Winer, 1957; Hemphill and Coons, 1957) and 'University of Michigan researchers' (e.g., Bowers and Seashore, 1966; Cartwright and Zander, 1966) all cited in Carron (1980) were concerned with the identification of behaviors universally exhibited by leaders across all leadership situations. Scales such as the LBDQ, SBDQ and LOQ measured two dimensions - 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' - and these were most frequently studied by these schools of researchers using behavioral approaches to leadership. However one issue which is directly applicable to the study of leadership in sport and physical activity and largely ignored by behavioral researchers, is whether leader behaviors should be considered as universal. Studies in hockey (Danielson et al., 1970) and student sport involvement (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978) failed to produce either similar leadership behavior dimensions or support for Hendry's (1972) contention that coaching behavior is characterized by deviance, aggression and authoritarianism. The conclusion, therefore, is that the dimensions of leader behavior should be regarded as appropriate only to the specific sport context.

Some studies on athletic directors have utilized the behavior approach base and more specifically Halpin and Winer's (1957) dimensions of initiating structure and consideration. Sprendel (1974), for example, utilized two forms of the LBDQ, the LBDQ-ideal and the LBDQ-real, and

found that selected college athletic directors in America favoured a 'consideration style' of leadership in their actual administration behavior. Daniel (1974) observed that 'organizations' can bias leadership styles but that in athletics the personality factors and leadership styles of athletic directors can also affect leadership processes. Austin (1975) added that perceptions of leadership style are affected by the athletic directors' frame of reference (who they were with) and since athletic directors differed, their fundamental inter-personal relationships with head coaches, for example, were equally diverse.

Before reviewing the 'situational' approaches to leadership in sport research, it is important to point out that the impact of traits upon the process of leadership and the leader's effectiveness are still viewed with importance. For example, in Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness, traits of the leader are incorporated and viewed as critical considerations. Similarly, House (1971), House and Mitchell (1974) and Vroom (1959) have also proposed that the personality characteristics of the leader as well as those of subordinates would be included in any analysis of leadership. However it is accepted that attempts to identify a universal set of traits that characterize a leader have proved futile.

Only recently has a systematic analysis of various situational characteristics and leadership behavior been undertaken and the two major efforts in this regard can be classified under two broad categories which are exemplified by the work of Fiedler (1967) using the trait approach (mentioned earlier) and different theoretical standpoints advanced by House (1971), Vroom and Yetton (1973) and Hersey and Blanchard (1969) all of whom used a behavioral approach.

Situational trait approach

Fiedler's theory is described as a contingency model of leader effectiveness, because it assumes that the contribution of the leader to successful group performance is determined both by certain of his or her personality characteristics and by various features of the situation. His theory is an attempt therefore to combine the trait and situational approaches.

Fiedler focuses primarily on a disposition he terms esteem for least preferred co-worker (LPC), i.e., leaders' tendencies to evaluate the group members whom they like least in a positive or negative manner. Leaders who perceive this person in uniformly negatively terms "low LPC leaders" (in Fiedler's terminology), seem to be primarily motivated toward successful task performance and so usually adopt a directive authoritarian approach. In contrast, leaders who perceive this person in a more favourable light ("high LPC leaders") seem to be mainly concerned with establishing warm, friendly interpersonal relations. As a result, they generally adopt a more relaxed nondirective leadership style.

Fiedler specified the conditions in which low LPC and high LPC leaders are most likely to be effective and three situational factors that determine degrees of favourability for the leader - personal relations, task structure and power position (mentioned earlier) - but although his theory had its origins in his own studies of basketball teams (Fiedler, 1954) few researchers have attempted to test the model in the athletic context. Those studies that have used his LPC scale have not found much support for this theory (e.g., Horwood, 1979; Naylor, 1976), but in fairness to Fiedler perhaps the variation in ability levels of athletes and differing levels of competition in these studies could have distorted the findings. For example, Inciong (1974) concluded that the

LPC was unrelated to team success in high school basketball. Danielson (1976) suggested that his study could not support the use of LPC measurements because

> "hockey is a social situation and may therefore require a different style of leadership than that required in industrial or business settings" (p. 53).

And Bird (1977) in a study using female intercollegiate volleyball teams, found that coaches' leadership style in successful teams varied according to level of competition. She hypothesized that all winning teams would have task-oriented coaches (low LPC scores) but found winning coaches, in the good league, viewed as more socioemotional while losing teams in the same league saw leadership to be task oriented (the converse was true in the less skilled division). Her results therefore could not support the use of Fiedler's LPC scale, because task orientation was associated differently by both losing and winning teams, although the situational favourableness was the same for both groups - but would her results have anything to do with the gender of the coaches in her study and the fact she used female teams?

In an investigation of the leadership process among 30 high school gymnastic teams however, Kjeldsen (1976) examined Fiedler's theory from several points of view and found general support for the contingency model. He fould that coaches of successful teams were more task-oriented. Kjeldsen reports a number of other findings concerning relationships between LPC scores, leadership behaviors and team performance and his work is generally noted as one of the most comprehensive studies of leadership in sport groups to date.

Kondar-Goldband et al. (1979) also found results in support of Fiedler's model in the athletic context and were much more positive than

other researchers in their opinions on using LPC scores as indices of leadership effectiveness in future research.

> "we do not say that LPC is the ultimate or even best available leader trait or that the contingency model is the definitive statement of the relationship between leader characteristics, situational factors, and group outcomes. Instead we are simply proposing that there appears to be some value in the contingency approach to the study of leadership, and that further research along these lines is not only viable but warranted" (Kondar-Goldband et al., p. 408).

Situational behavior view

The comparison of assumptions between Fiedler's Contingency Model and those of Vroom and Yetton (1973) and House (1971) can be made by referring to Table 2.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) were concerned with only one component of the leader's behavior; namely the degree to which a leader allows participation by subordinates in decision-making. They broadly classified decision methods as autocratic where the leader alone makes the decision; consultative, where the leader still makes the decision but after gaining information through consultation with subordinates either individually or collectively; and group decisions where the group including the leader jointly make the decision and the leader then implements this group decision. Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) have adapted the Vroom and Yetton model to the athletic context and propose three types of decision styles - autocratic (coach alone makes the decision); participative (the group including the coach as a member arrive at the decision); and delegative (the coach allows one or more members of the group to make the decision).

House's Path-Goal Theory (1971) and research (1974) has attempted to explain the relationship between leader behavior and the motivation

TABLE 2

A Comparison of Elements in Three Contingency Models

Model	Leader Behavior	Contingency Factors	Outcome Criteria
Fiedler's LPC	Task-Oriented (Low LPC) Relationship-Oriented (High LPC)	Leader-Member Relations Task Structure Leader Position Power	
Vroom & Yetton's Decision-Making	Autocratic, Consultative, or Group Style	Importance of Decision Quality Degree Needed Information is Available to Leader and Followers Problem Structure Follower's Probable Acceptance and Motivation Regarding Decision Disagreement among Followers about Preferred Solutions	Quality of Decision Acceptance of Decision by Followers Time Required to Reach Decision
House's Path-Goal	Directive, Supportive, Achievement-Oriented or Participative Style	Subordinate Characteristics and Personal Perceptions Environmental Factors: Task, Authority System, Primary Work Group	Follower Satisfaction, Acceptance of Leader, and Effort to Gain Rewards

(from Hollander, 1978, p. 35)

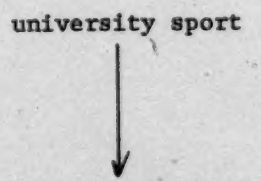
of subordinates. The basic proposition is that it is the function of the coach to enhance the psychological states of the athletes that result in motivation to perform, or in satisfaction with their performance(s).

The Situational Theory of Leadership proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977) was originally referred to as the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership and the major postulations of the theory are that:

> "as the level of maturity of their followers continues to increase in terms of accomplishing a specific task, leaders should begin to reduce their task behavior and increase relationship behavior until the individual or group reaches a moderate level of maturity. As the individual or group begins to move into an above average level of maturity it becomes appropriate for leaders to decrease not only task behavior but also relationship behavior" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, p. 167).

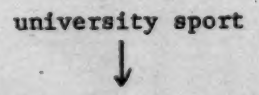
Danielson's (1976) study of leadership in minor hockey did not provide findings consistent with this proposal. He found that increased relationship oriented behavior from coaches was positively related to team performance and effectiveness across all levels of situational favourableness. Danielson's study included Fiedler's situation favourable variables, leader-member relations task structure and the leader's power position. So whereas Hersey and Blanchard propose that leadership style should vary from: (in order)

1. high task/low relationship
2. high task/high relationship
3. high relationship/low task
4. low relationship/low task



The most appropriate style <u>might</u> be:

1. low task/high relationship
2. high task/high relationship



3. high task/low relationship

4. low task/low relationship ↓ professional sport

A recent study (Vos Strache, 1979) examining the relationship between player perceptions of the leadership qualities for coaches and the won-loss record, starter/non-starter status and educational level of the player, found results that supported the path-goal theory but little support for the life-cycle theory. Vos Strache found that losing coaches in the sample did not clearly identify the 'path' to success for their team members. The reasons for there being no apparent support for life-cycle theory stemmed from the homogeneity of maturity in her sample, that is her sample was comprised of coaches from similar educational levels.

Since situational approach theories, particularly trait theories, have found very little cross-situational evidence to support their models of effectiveness, some researchers currently working on leadership have chosen the interactional approach (mentioned earlier).

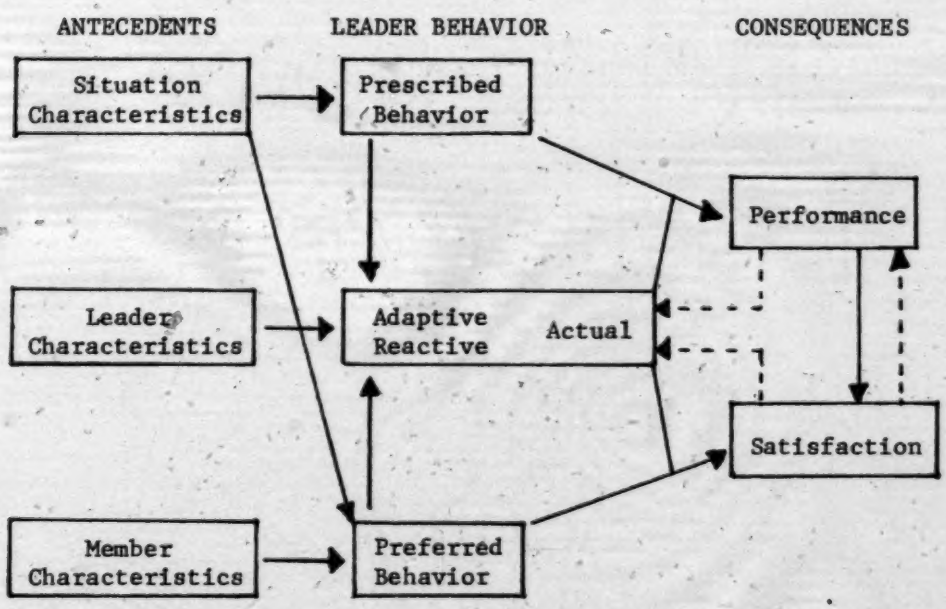
Interactional approach

An example of the recent interactive models for the study of leadership in coaching can be seen in the work of Chelladurai (1978) whose model is depicted in Table 3.

Of importance in this model is the point that behavior of the leader is seen as being jointly determined by the leader, member and situational characteristics and is assumed to produce one or both of the outcomes of group satisfaction and group performance. Chelladurai highlights the same two major personality traits - task and interpersonal relations - as Fiedler in his model and this is because the coach's own personality and ability are regarded as the major determinants of his actual behaviour even though situational factors affect his behaviour also.

TABLE 3

A Multidimensional Model of Leadership
(from Chelladurai, (1978)



Support for the use of interactional approaches in leadership has been given by Curtis et al. (1979) who found that coaching behavior and team perception determined, to a significant extent, how a coach affects team morale. Players in their sample were especially sensitive to punitiveness in their perceptions of a coach and coaches of losing teams were perceived as more punitive and less supportive than winning coaches. The results in their study imply that coach behavior is a causal factor in team performance and morale (especially) but any attempt to establish more explicit causal relationships can only be facilitated by analyzing reciprocal relationships (coach, athlete, situation). Hence

> "the validation of interactional models will be an important step both in sports psychology and in leadership research" (Curtis et al., [1979], p. 399).

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) recently used the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1978) to test and refine the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) used by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978). The LSS consists of one direct task factor - training/instruction of the coach to improve the performance level of the athlete; two decision style factors - democratic (the extent to which the coach permits participation by the athletes in decision-making) and autocratic (the extent to which the coach keeps apart from the athletes and stresses his/her authority in dealing with them; and two motivational factors - social support (the extent to which the coach is involved in satisfying the interpersonal needs of the athletes) and positive feedback (the extent to which the coach expresses his/her appreciation for the athletes' performance and contribution). These five dimensions are consistent with the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership (House and Dessler, 1974) and are conceptually distinct categories of coaching behavior. More significantly, however, in terms of the development of approaches to leadership research in sport,

the LSS represents the most recent attempt to study effective leadership (coaching) using a multi-dimensional or interactional approach.

In summary, leadership research in sport began by study of traits or personality characteristics of coaches. The next focus was on coach behaviour followed by situational factors in the coaching environment until finally the interactional approach became most popular. In studying effective leadership (coaching) in particular, the interactional model has recently been preferred to other approaches and the gathering of data is facilitated through reports on indices of effectiveness from both the players (athletes) and the coaches, thus making the study of this enigma (coaching effectiveness) more and more subjective. The future direction therefore, of leadership research particularly in sport, would seem to lie with the development of interaction models which also include subjective, rather than objective, measures of effectiveness.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Sample

Originally the study was to involve only professional soccer coaches in the North American Soccer League (NASL) but due to the small size of this sample and the possibility of a poor response rate, the sample was extended to include all professional coaches in Canada and America and the top amateur coaches 'certified' by the Canadian Soccer Association. Every Canadian university coach was included in the amateur sample along with coaches from American universities. The total sample of 119 coaches representing the best soccer coaches in North America is compared with the final sample used in data analysis below.

Professional (40)	Head Coaches	Respondents	
NASL (North American Soccer League)	21	5	19.04%
MISL (Major Indoor Soccer League)	11	1	9.09%
ASL (American Soccer League)	8	0	-
Amateur (79)			
CIAU (Canadian university coaches)	26	14	53.84%
CSA (selected by the Canadian Soccer Association)	31	22	70.96%
USSF (American university coaches)	22	18	81.82%
	119	60	50.42%

Data Collection Procedure

Names and addresses of the professional coaches in the NASL, MISL, and ASL were obtained with the cooperation of the Edmonton Soccer Club's General Manager and personal secretary. The Drillers head coach was particularly helpful in this respect and both he, his assistant coach and the former general manager became interested in the actual study itself. Because of their assistance, cooperation, advice and enthusiasm it was not felt necessary to approach either of the leagues for permission or endorsements to carry out the investigation. It is important to the study to point out that while both ASL and MISL records are continuously 'changing' - with an incredible turnover of clubs each year let alone coaches - the NASL data was reliable and far more stable.

The list of CIAU coaches was easily obtained from the University of Alberta Athletic Services office and while the full list of universities came to 43 in the CIAU handbook it was surprising to find that only 35 ran soccer programmes. Since 9 of the CIAU coaches were included in the selected sample from the CSA the final CIAU sample amounted to 26.

Following some correspondence with the CSA Technical Director in Ottawa a list of 31 coaches was sent to the researcher. This list, comprised of top amateur coaches from Eastern and Western Canadian provinces, included the Canadian National Team coach, all CSA staff coaches, some university coaches and coaches working with top amateur teams in different leagues.

The USSF sample of coaches was compiled entirely by the Drillers coaches. Their suggestion to include this sample in the study attracted the researcher partly because of the obvious comparison that could be

made between Canadian and American styles of university coaching and partly because this sample was known personally to both Drillers coaches and so might swell the response rate to the study. Addresses of this sample were obtained from the National Directory of College Athletes' yearbook.

Each coach in the total sample was sent a copy of the inventory along with a stamped addressed envelope. Included also in this package was an introductory letter from the researcher which set a deadline return date for all responses and three letters of endorsement for the study - i.e., one each from the Drillers Head Coach and former General Manager and the CSA Technical Director (which was sent to amateurs only).

Following the return deadline for the study questionnaire all non-respondents were sent two reminders with a two week interval between each reminder. The final sample used in data analysis, and for the purpose of identifying coach status, was then divided into the following 4 categories:

Status	Number
Professional	6
CIAU	14
CSA	22
USSF	18

Six questionnaires were reported 'lost' in the post - 2 from professionals, 2 CIAU and 2 CSA coaches - and in spite of sending questionnaire copies to these subjects their responses had still not reached the researcher in time for analysis. Only 1 subject, a professional, refused by letter to take part in the study due to 'lack of time'.

The disappointing return rate from professional coaches in the NASL cannot really be explained or justified. Some clubs were going through

transition phases with new appointments on the coaching staff but every NASL head coach should have received the questionnaire package and two reminders but, as indicated above, 16 coaches simply declined to take part in the study. The MISL and ASL sample remains very much a mystery - following numerous telephone calls to each of the league's head offices, for confirmation of addresses, very little information about the existence of these clubs and especially the identity of the head coaches was available. As opposed to the NASL, the membership to both MISL and the ASL is very much impermanent and transient and the tenure of head coaches virtually non-existent. In spite of the inherent instability in both MISL and ASL, however, the return rate from professionals in general, as compared to amateurs, was lamentably poor. It is due to this poor response rate from professional coaches in fact, that little credence can be given to coach status comparisons in the study sample and even to the significant results found in such comparisons.

Indices of Coaching Effectiveness

Each coach's winning percentage was used as an objective indice of his effectiveness. Coaches were either effective or non-effective according to how many games they had won over a period of at least two years and later both these dichotomised groups were compared and contrasted with each other in data analysis.

But apart from this well worn objective measure of coaching effectiveness - won-loss data - the researcher asked 3 professional coaches and 3 amateur coaches to examine more closely and subjectively the obscure intricacies of this enigma. While the 3 professional coaches wrote down their criteria or formulae for coaching effectiveness, the 3 amateur experts were asked first of all to comment on the usefulness and

appropriateness of an index compiled by the researcher (Appendix C) and then assess the CSA coaches taking part in the study using the index as a measurement tool. Only by gauging effectiveness in a qualitative way can we hope to glean more insightful information on what good coaches do and moves away from traditional measurements of effectiveness, e.g., won-loss data percentages, must be encouraged and supported.

Questionnaire

A 13 page inventory was classified into four separate parts each of which will be described briefly below. The questionnaire outline and some brief instructions to respondents were attached to the document as its 'introductory' page.

Part 1. Coach Background Information

A. Personal Data

This section included descriptive data on age, date of birth, place of birth and country lived in the longest. It was anticipated that most of the coaches would be Non-American or Non-Canadian by birth but perhaps more amateurs would be 'natives' than professionals.

Age and authoritarianism were related to each other and with coach experience.

Marital status, number of children and contractual employment could indicate patterns of stressfulness at different levels of coaching - e.g., it is often surprising to read the ascendancy rate of divorce amongst professional coaches and players in all sports.

B. Training Data

Descriptive data on educational level could reveal interesting comparisons between the amateur and professional coach. Differences between their playing experience was also of interest as was their

position played and number of occasions they were 'captain'. Both positions played and captaincy honours would tend to indicate early patterns of leadership. Playing in 'central' positions suits group members who like their leaders to be 'visible' (Sommers, 1961) and the fact that leaders like to be able to 'observe' from significantly more central positions (Chelladurai and Carron, 1977) would help explain the tendency for captains to be "sweepers" or "central defenders" and the fact that a lot of coaches in the modern game were formerly 'central' or 'key' position players themselves.

Differences in coaching experience and qualifications between professionals and amateurs was interesting inasmuch as many professional players often 'step into' ready made jobs in coaching on the basis of reputations made as a player. Amateur players, on the other hand, and especially those who now coach professionally, are expected to have had a longer and more exacting probationary period in coaching at various levels before they 'make the grade'.

Information on present appointment and other coaching appointments identified coaches who, for one reason or another, wished to withold personal data.

C. Present Appointment - Duties and Commitments

Professionals were expected to report more time spent on coaching soccer during the season and more time spent on soccer related activity in the closed season. The way this time was spent however also provided useful insights into the preparation coaches felt they had to make, in and out of season, in order to be effective, i.e., successful. This was linked to indices of effectiveness as indicated by the 3 experts who, presumably, took into account the unseen work coaches

engaged in 'behind the scenes' in their assessment of effectiveness.

Also, amateur coaches may have perceived their role at their club differently from professionals although their assumed task structure is identical.

Part 2. Instruments

A. The Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (LPC)

The LPC was used to measure coach motivational style and was developed by Fiedler (1967). Specifically, the LPC scale determined whether the coach was task oriented (low LPC) or relationship oriented (high LPC).

B. The Team Atmosphere Scale (TA)

Also developed by Fiedler (1967), the TA was used to assess coach/player relations. As in the LPC scale the TA scale consists of bipolar items on an eight point scale. The coach is simply asked to describe his team's atmosphere using the bipolar items.

Both the LPC and TA instruments were adapted to suit soccer situations although they were first formulated and validated in management and industry. The scales were so placed in the presentation order of instruments for two reasons. First, respondents would not feel the effects of boredom and staleness as might be experienced at the end of the instrument section and secondly, their inclusion at 'the beginning' allowed respondents (or encouraged) a greater degree of thought and reflection. Neither scales might have been answered 'properly' had they been placed elsewhere in this inventory and since their findings were most essential to this study, they were 'given' the best chance to elicit 'best' responses.

The internal consistency of Fiedler's Contingency Model using split-half correlations has yielded high coefficients ranging from .85 to .95. In other words, the person who describes his LPC negatively on some items will also describe him negatively on other items. The test/retest reliability of LPC measurements over certain periods of time has varied from .30 to .90 which is well within the range of the best personality scales (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974). Validation studies (Fiedler, 1971; Fiedler and Chemers, 1974; Mitchell et al., 1970) have generally supported the Contingency Model and found the theory highly predictive and relationships in the validity studies were almost identical to those obtained in the original studies. The theory is undoubtedly one of the best validated leadership theories today. It is based on a host of empirical data from a variety of groups and organizations and also supported by validations from a widely different set of groups and organizations. More than 200 journal articles, books and reports have been written about Fiedler's Contingency Model and most standard textbooks in the field of organization theory and management, and social psychology devote space to it.

C. The Coach Self Rating Scale

This scale was included to obtain information on how coaches felt about their expertise in the various aspects of coaching. Because of the high level of subjectivity, very few coaches were expected to be very "dissatisfied" with themselves on any of the categories. However it will be interesting to compare correlations of effectiveness of utilizing talents of assistant coaches and effective coaching, with those of Horwood (1979) who used the scale in a study of basketball coaches.

D. The Self Improvement Scale

This scale was developed by Dr. M.F. Smith, Faculty of Physical Education, University of Alberta and was used by Naylor (1976) and Horwood (1979) in studies on football and basketball coaching effectiveness respectively. A revised form of the scale was used again to measure the 'training' data of soccer coaches. The extent, after all, to which soccer coaches are willing to experiment with innovations in equipment, skill techniques and resource materials for training methods must surely reflect their influence style of leadership. The inclusion of this scale in the inventory recognizes that team success must not just be based on performance measures. The scale also hoped to indicate the degree to which coaches limited their use of new information or different thinking in terms of dealing with new soccer problems. Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) found a marked degree of psychological inflexibility and extreme conservatism in coaching methods employed by coaches in their study and Coakley (1978) suggested that some coaches may regard 'paying attention to what others say' as a dangerous thing to do in the face of team owners who employ not just the coach but his system of operation as well.

E. Team-Head Coach Relationship

This scale was used to measure relative amounts of authoritarian attitude and behavior of coaches in coaching situations. The scale was developed by Bain (1973) and was revised for this study to include sport specific questions and opinions on sport specific situations and relationships. For example, the coach's relationship with fans, the media, the 'organization', players and assistants.

According to Sage (1973)

> "coaches have structured coach-player relations along authoritarian lines; they have analyzed and structured sports team positions for precise specializations of the performers and they have endeavoured to control player behavior not only through practice and contest periods but also on a round the clock bases" (pp. 36-37)

Bain worded his scale questions in a positive direction, and he considered that answers of 'neutral' - 'agree very much' indicated authoritarianism. He also felt that the respondents using the scale would show varied responses and would tend to avoid extreme positions unless a firm conviction was felt. Perhaps it would be interesting to compare and contrast the degree of authoritarianism using this scale with the TA scale but perhaps the most interesting comparison will be between LPC scores and authoritarian measures. While neither of these descriptive measurements can evaluate a coach's style of leadership interaction (they are not designed to be evaluative instruments) and different soccer situations require and often demand different styles of leadership, it would be useful to compare associations between effectiveness and LPC score, and then between effectiveness and degrees of authoritarianism. There is some evidence to suggest that LPC scores and authoritarianism could be similar personality measurements, i.e., that a task oriented coach will also be authoritarian. Scott (1971), for example, who cited psychological studies that found (college) coaches to be one of the most authoritarian groups in American society, also claimed that coaches as a group were insensitive in their interpersonal relationships (c/f low LPC). Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) referred also to the low tendency of coaches to be interested in the dependency needs of others.

Part 3. Won-Lost Record

Fortunately all coaches were able to produce records as evidence of their 'successes' and 'failures'. Coaches of course may have only 'remembered' the good years and consequently may have been dishonest with some of their figures.

It was essential to the study that respondents be in the 'hire and fire' category. This statement from the coach testified to his leadership position within each club and to the crucial importance of his responsibilities. It also implied a decision-making role which even owners, generally, do not interfere with.

Part 4. Personal Opinion on Other Coaches in Canada

Since the soccer world, like any other sporting world, is closely knit, and in spite of the geographical distances between clubs operating in the same league, the researcher felt that a peer rating opportunity in the questionnaire was an easy and convenient means to obtain a list of the top 5 rated coaches in North America. Commonalities in the ratings of effectiveness between professionals and amateurs and closer inspection of responses from this (elected) elite group of five produced a taxonomy of effectivness characteristics and this corroborated won-loss data for one coach at least.

The questionnaire was designed to work through the variables from 'easy to difficult'. For example, the larger scales, involving lengthy questions, were placed later in the order of presentation. The presentation order also tried to ensure that important measures were featured early in the inventory (when respondents concentrate best), and all the questions were so arranged to sustain interest throughout. In the researcher's opinion the fact that coaches were allowed to brag a little (assuming they were successful!) and evaluate their peers on the

last page, encouraged respondents to complete all the sections of the inventory.

Statistical Treatment

Descriptive data was tabluated where possible for ease of illustration and comments on frequency distributions, means and standard deviations noted in report form where necessary.

Specifically descriptive statistics was used to report the following in the results section.

1. coach background information - personal data
2. training data - educational
   - playing experience
   - coaching experience; qualifications held; present appointment; and 'other' coaching experience or qualifications
3. present appointment - duties and commitments

Inferential statistical treatments involved the use of t tests of independence, Chi Square tests of independence, and the Phi Coefficient. In order to do this, however, the following terms were clarified and referred to hereafter as two-categoried or dichotomous variables.

1. coaching effectiveness - coaches with a won-loss percentage of 51% + were regarded as effectiye and coaches with won-loss records of 50% and less were regarded as not effective.
2. coach authoritarianism - coaches who scored 78 and less on instrument E (team-head coach relationship) were regarded as authoritarian and coaches scoring 79 and above as non-authoritarian.
3. leadership style - Fiedler (1967) describes coaches with scores of 64 + on the LPC scale as interpersonally oriented and those

scoring 57 and less as task oriented. This study used the same interpretations and discounted those coaches who scored in the mid-range (57-63) from analysis involving this scale.

Significance levels for all the following results were accepted at the .05 level of confidence.

Using the t test of independence the following relationships were tested:

1. The relationship between leadership style and
   - coach training background (number of years)
   - playing experience (number of years)
   - head coaching experience (number of years)
   - time spent on coaching in and out of season (number of hours)
2. The relationship between coach authoritarianism and
   - coach age
   - head coaching experience
   - playing experience
3. The relationship between coaching effectiveness and
   - head coaching experience
   - time spent on coaching in and out of the season
   - playing experience
   - coach qualifications

Using Chi Square tests of independence the following null hypotheses were tested:

There is no relationship between
1. leadership style
2. coach authoritarianism
3. coaching effectiveness, and coach role perception (2 x 4 in all three cases).

Using the Phi Coefficient the following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no relationship between leadership style and
   - coaching effectiveness
   - coach authoritarianism
   - tenure
2. There is no relationship between coach authoritarianism and
   - coaching effectiveness
   - tenure

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sample

The mean age for the entire sample - and those who responded to this section of the questionnaire - was 39.9 years of age. The different sample means are shown in Table 4, along with the data on place of birth and country lived in the longest (figures in brackets). Ages ranged from 28 years - 55 years. As expected there were fewer North American coaches actually born in North America (41%) than coaches born in Europe (57.3%) but also, as expected, more coaches in the sample declared North America as the place they had lived the longest (59%). A trend therefore to be born in Europe (in one case South America) and to have lived longest in North America was evident but only amongst amateur coaches and particularly those in the CSA sample. Six CSA coaches, for example, born in the U.K., had lived in Canada most of their lives ($p = 0.000$).

The data (in Table 4) shows clearly that soccer in North America is being coached by coaches who have been brought up in cultures more heavily steeped in soccer traditions, i.e., Europe. However, even although very few North Americans have reached the top flight in professional soccer coaching, a growing number are actively involved at amateur level. Perhaps in 5 years time or less, and largely due to the activities and coaching programmes of the USSF and CSA, even more natural born Canadians and Americans will be coaching top level amateur soccer and also at the professional level. Certainly if the growing number of young North American soccer players, who appear more regularly these days on professional rosters, is an indice of the general development of soccer in Canada and America, the 'graduation' of North American

TABLE 4

Coach Status: Place of Birth and Country Lived in the Longest

	Pro.	CIAU	CSA	USSF	Totals
Mean Age	(40.7 yrs.)	(37.2 yrs.)	(41.6 yrs.)	(39.9 yrs.)	
Place of birth and country lived in longest ( )					
Canada	0	9 (11)	- (6)	-	9 (17)
U. S. A.	1 (1)	0	-	14 (16)	15 (17)
England	2 (2)	1 (1)	10 (8)	-	13 (11)
Scotland	2 (2)	0	8 (6)	1 (1)	11 (3)
Holland	0	1 (1)	-	1	2 (1)
Finland	1 (1)	0	-	-	1 (1)
Russia	0	1	-	-	1
Argentina	-	0	1	1	1
Czechoslovakia	-	1 (1)	-	-	1 (1)
Austria	-	0	1	-	1
Greece	-	0	1	-	1
Eire	-	1	-	-	1
Wales	-	0	1 (1)	-	1 (1)
Total	6	14	21 (p = 0.000)	17	58
Non-responses	-	0	1	1	

soccer coaches to top level coaching positions is virtually certain.

Of the entire sample of coaches, 84.5% were married, including all the professionals, and the largest majority of divorced or separated coaches (8.6%) came from the CIAU sample (80%). Very few coaches did not have any children and the mode for each sample was 2. The average number of children per sample is shown in brackets in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Marital Status

Coach Status (Av. # of Children)	Single	Married	Divorced or Separated	Non-responses
Professional (1.8)	-	6	-	-
CIAU (1.3)	-	10	4	-
CSA (1.9)	2	19	-	1
USSF (1.8)	2	14	1	1

Seventy point seven percent of the sample had job tenure or contractual appointments with their club and those who did not, had yearly 'informal arrangements'. The latter group, excluding two non-respondents, were quite open in their written remarks regarding their job situation and none of them appeared to feel insecure or threatened.

Data on educational background revealed that over 80% of the entire sample had attained post high school educational awards - diplomas or degrees - and over 50% had at least a Masters degree ($p = 0.002$). The trend possibly suggests that the longer coaches stay in the educational system, the more likely they are to reach top coaching positions in soccer. However, the fact that two of the samples are from University populations in Canada and America and that employment in University

TABLE 6

Educational Background

Status	High School Certificate	Diploma or Equivalent	Bachelor Degree	Masters Degree	Ph.D.	Non-responses
Professional	2	-	-	2	-	2
CIAU	-	2	4	5	3	-
CSA	7	8	2	2	2	1
USSF	2	-	1	10	5	-
Total	11	10	7	19	10	3
%	19.3	17.5	12.3	33.3	17.5	

($p = 0.002$)

Athletics usually demands 'higher' degrees of coaches, may distort this interpretation. But certainly the fact that over half of the entire sample had Masters degrees (or Ph.D. in 10 cases) showed that these coaches, in general were very well qualified academically as well as 'professionally' (see Table 6).

A description of the breakdown of soccer playing and coaching experience for each of the 4 categories of coaches is outlined in Table 7.

Since 66.6% of the professionals and 85.7% of the CSA coaches were born in the United Kingdom and were also brought up in a soccer culture (66.7% only of CSA coaches), it is not surprising that these samples did report playing soccer for a greater number of years than the CIAU and USSF samples. That both these samples also reported a greater number of years as captain is probably more interesting, however. This evidence coupled with the fact that these coaches won more playing titles and representative honours ($p = 0.001$) than the CIAU and USSF samples would

TABLE 7

Playing and Coaching Experience

	Prof.		CIAU		CSA		USSF		
1. Playing Experience									
mean yrs. played	18.5		8.7		15.9		12.2		
Position Played									
goalkeeper	1		0		-		-		
defender	2		1		8		5		
midfield	-		5		8		3		
forward	2		4		5		6		
various	1		2		1		2		
non-responses	-		2		-		2		
mean yrs. captain	5.2		1.9		4.7		1.3		
2. Coaching Experience									
mean yrs. coached	10.2		7.9		13.6		18.6		
Career Awards: Playing	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	
playing awards	2	4	6	8	8	14	11	7	
team titles	6	0	7	7	15	7	12	6	
rep. honours	6	0	3	11	13	9	4	14	(p = 0.001)
Coaching									
personal awards	3	3	3	11	3	19	16	2	(p = 0.000)
coaching titles	5	1	12	2	14	8	18	0	(p = 0.030)
Appointment Held									
Head coach	6		12		20		18		
Ass't. coach	-		-		1		-		

suggest that top flight soccer coaches have a longer and more successful playing career than most other coaches. Furthermore periods of captaincy may have provided early leadership experience to these coaches which has possibly influenced their interest in coaching. Captains in the sample tended to play in defensive or midfield positions more so than in attack, which supports the views expressed by Sommers (1961) and Chelladurai and Carron (1977) that groups like their leaders to be 'visible' and 'central' and that leaders like to be able to 'observe' from central positions. Since individual awards for playing is more of a North American tradition than European, the higher incidence of CIAU and USSF coaches receiving awards as compared to the professional and CSA coaches was, perhaps, to be expected.

The fact that professionals (10.2 years) had not coached as long as for example CSA (13.6 years) and USSF (18.6 years) coaches, may at first be surprising but it is quite common for professional coaches to step directly into these positions on the completion of a professional playing career. Professional coaches in this sample, two-thirds of whom played professionally, have shown evidence of this, i.e., a long playing career followed directly by a relatively short coaching career. The only amateur coach who had played full-time professional soccer in Scotland had only coached two years. Amateur coaches, in other words seem to have had a longer coaching career than professionals but only due to the fact they played and coached at the same time while the latter could not. USSF coaches had won significantly more coaching awards and coaching titles than the other groups although the level of soccer at which some of these coaches had worked was not as high as, for instance, the CSA coaches and especially all of the professional coaches. However it was encouraging for the researcher to note that in

all four samples the majority of respondents had shown evidence of successful and effective coaching at different levels of soccer in North America.

Fifty-six of the 57 respondents (in this section) reported that their appointment at the club during the time they received their awards or won their titles, was head coach. Eighty-three percent of these coaches indicated they were certified by having completed CSA, or USSF level 4 or other top level coaching awards. The breakdown of coaching qualifications is shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8

Coaching Qualifications

	Non-certified Levels			Certified Levels			
Status	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Pre-Lim.	Full Badge	Non-respondents
Professionals	-	-	-	2	-	4	-
CIAU	2	4	2	-	3	-	3
CSA	-	-	-	10	3	-	3
USSF	-	-	1	-	3	12	2

($p = 0.000$)

As indicated in Table 9, a number of coaches had had experience coaching other sports and half of these (50%) won titles coaching these sports (number in brackets).

The actual sports the coaches had coached are indicated in Table 10 and whether or not they had coaching qualifications in those sports (in brackets). It was expected that both CIAU and USSF coaches would coach other sports and have coaching qualifications in these sports because of the nature of their employment in University Departments of Athletics. But the evidence on other coaching experience in

TABLE 9

Coached Other Sports and Won Titles ( )

Status	Yes	No	Non-responses
Professional	2 (1)	2 (3)	2
CIAU	10 (6)	1 (5)	3
CSA	6 (3)	4 (6)	12 (13)
USSF	15 (8)	- (4)	3 (6)
Total	33 (18)	7 (18)	20 (24)

TABLE 10

Sports Coached Other than Soccer and Coaching Qualifications in those Sports ( )

Status	Football	Basketball or Volleyball	Hockey or Skating	Squash or Tennis	Track	More than two
Professional	-	-	-	-	-	2 (1)
CIAU	-	2 (2)	3 (1)	1	-	3 (1)
CSA	1	1	-	-	1	3 (2)
USSF	-	2	-	2 (1)	1 (1)	10 (3)
Total	1	5	3	3	2	18

Total non-respondents = 28 (48)

general does suggest that the soccer coaches may be benefitting from this broad coaching exposure, e.g., 65% of the entire sample had coached other sports and were considered effective (Appendix D, Table 1).

Average hours spent per week during the soccer season and average days spent on soccer out of the soccer season are listed in Appendix D, Table 2. Due to the inconsistent and often confusing responses, average hours per day spent on soccer out of the soccer season was left out of the analysis (most of the respondents completed answers only in terms of days). As expected a significant difference was found between the time professional coaches spent on soccer during the season compared with amateurs. Professional coaches spent almost 4 hours per day more on soccer than amateur coaches during the season and spent considerably more time, more specifically, in preparation and organization. From the evidence given it was apparent that although professional coaches spent more time on organizational affairs than amateur coaches, they spent a lot more time preparing for practice sessions or critical games. Amateurs, on the other hand, spent more of their time in practice and organizational affairs than on preparation, whereas professionals spent most of their time in organizational matters, but as much time in both preparation and practice. The evidence here clearly suggests that although professionals do have more time to prepare coaching sessions during the season they consider preparation for practice more important than amateurs.

Out of the season professional coaches also spent most of their time on organization matters. Next important, or at least time consuming for them, was scouting or recruiting new players, public relations work, e.g., attending functions, banquets or publicity meetings, and individual player instruction. None of the professional coaches in this sample

coached soccer in the off season with another team or in another league competition. The amateur coaches, on the other hand, spent most of their time on scouting and recruiting new players and individual player instruction than on organizing for the coming season. They too were involved in public relations work and unlike the professionals were busy with off season soccer leagues and competitions. Well down the list of off season soccer activities for both professional and amateur coaches was involvement with soccer camps or clinics. The indication however that some of these coaches are involved in soccer camps, at least to some extent, suggests that they do take the time to help coach other players and coaches in North America.

Of the entire sample, 75% regarded their role at their club as manager/coach. One professional coach and 5 amateurs regarded their roles as educators, 7 amateurs felt their job was a combination of all three categories and 2 Canadian amateurs felt they were primarily administrators. It was especially interesting that 1 professional, whose head coaching role involves more responsibility and more pressure than amateur head coaching roles, regarded himself as an educator (Table 11).

TABLE 11

Role at the Club

Status	Manager/ Coach	Administrator	Educator	Combination
Professional	5	-	1	-
CIAU	13	1	-	-
CSA	15	1	1	5
USSF	12	-	4	2
Total	85	2	6	7

Instruments

Using Fiedler's LPC Scale (1967) coaches indicated their underlying motivational style: 54.2% (32) of the sample were interpersonally oriented (scores of 64 and above); 28.8% (17) were task oriented (scores of 57 and below); 16.9% (10) with scores ranging from 58-63 were neither regarded as interpersonally nor task oriented and this group was excluded from subsequent analysis using LPC measures; 1 amateur coach did not respond at all to this scale (Appendix D, Table 3).

Harmoniousness in teams, judged by the coaches themselves, was provided by using Fiedler's Team Atmosphere Scale (1967). The indication was that 83.3% of the entire sample felt that their team was at least harmonious (Appendix D, Table 4).

The Self-Rating Scale (Appendix D, Table 5) indicated that 55% (33) of the sample, those scoring less than 22, were 'satisfied' with their own ability and effectivness as a coach. Thirty-three point three percent (20) whose scores ranged from 23-32 were 'neutral' on their own coaching ability and 11.7% (7) scoring 33 and above were dissatisfied with their ability. As indicated in Table 12, 3 of the professional coaches were dissatisfied with the amount of games they'd won and it became evident later in the analysis that 2 of these professional coaches had indeed non-effective indices of effectiveness, i.e., had a won-loss record of less than 51%. When comparing only the CSA coaches' personal rating with those of the CSA coaching experts it was clear that some satisfied coaches (41.7%) had flattered themselves somewhat (Table 13). However, it was also evident that some coaches were not doing themselves justice either since 9.5% (2) of the CSA sample was dissatisfied with their own ability while the CSA experts rated them as 'good'. Confusion between

TABLE 12

Winning Games

Status	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neutral	Dis-satisfied	Very Dis-satisfied
Professional	-	1	2	3	-
CIAU	-	10	1	3	-
CSA	4	10	2	6	0
USSF	1	11	4	0	2

(p = 0.0393)

TABLE 13

Rating by CSA Assessors

Self Rating Scale	Good 15-18 pts.	Average 10-14 pts.	Poor 9 pts. and less
Satisfied	7	5	None
Neutral	3	3	
Dissatisfied	2	1	

(p = 0.8856)

the two rating scales with effectiveness as defined in this study will be mentioned later.

The Self Improvement Scale (Appendix D, Table 6) revealed some interesting and significant findings. For example, CSA coaches in particular found "watching live games" very helpful to their improvement in soccer coaching ($p = 0.02$) and 88% of the entire sample found this at least helpful. CSA coaches also found "watching national sides play" particularly helpful ($p = 0.01$) and 86.4% of the sample agreed that this was at least helpful. Of the entire sample, 86.4% also found "watching other teams in practice" at least helpful and particularly, again, the CSA coaches ($p = 0.02$). Significantly more professional, CSA and USSF coaches found "watching their own teams on video" very helpful ($p = 0.05$) and the large majority of coaches (77.6%) found "soccer coaches courses" very helpful at least, but the professionals less so than the amateurs. The four most helpful and least helpful aids to coaching improvement for each of the four samples are listed in Table 14 in a rank order.

From this table it is interesting to note that both professionals and amateurs in top level soccer coaching learn most about coaching from 'experience during games and practices' and from 'thinking about their team and how to improve their coaching'. It is interesting that only professional coaches in this sample read sports psychology articles and research study reports extensively. Although professional coaches used video films, a lot of amateur coaches in this sample did not see this as any help to their improvement at all. While professional coaches find least help from talking to coaches of other sports, watching other sports or experience from coaching other sports, amateurs found least help from reading soccer coaches' autobiographies or books about famous soccer

TABLE 14

Self-Improvement Aids in Soccer Coaching

Professional Coaches

Most Helpful	Least Helpful
1. experience gained during our games	1. watching other team sports live or on TV
2. thinking about the game, my team and how to improve what I'm doing	2. reading soccer books on techniques and strategy or training methods
3. experience gained during our practices	3. talking to other coaches in other sports
4. reading psychology of coaching studies	4. experience coaching other sports

CIAU Coaches

1. experience gained during our games	1. watching video, films or tapes of our team
2. thinking about the game, my team and how to improve what I'm doing	2. reading books about great coaches
3. reading soccer books on techniques and strategy or training methods	3. watching video, films or tapes of other teams
4. watching soccer films or instructional tapes	4. reading autobiographies or biographies written by professional players or managers about their experiences

CSA Coaches

1. experience gained during our games	1. my experience coaching other sports
2. watching other professional or amateur sides play live	2. reading autobiographies or biographies written by professional players or managers about their experiences
3. watching national sides play live	3. my experience as a teacher of physical education
4. attending coaches courses, seminars or conferences on soccer	4. watching other team sports live or on TV

TABLE 14 (Continued)

USSF Coaches

Most Helpful	Least Helpful
1. just thinking about the game, my team and how to improve what I'm doing	1. reading autobiographies or biographies written by professional players or managers about their experiences
2. experience gained during our games	2. reading books about great coaches
3. experience gained during our practices	3. watching other team sports live or on TV
4. attending coaches courses, seminars or conferences on soccer	4. watching games on TV

Combined Amateur Sample

1. experience gained during our games	1. reading autobiographies or biographies written by professional players or managers about their experiences
2. just thinking about the game, my team and how to improve what I'm doing	2. reading books about great coaches
3. experience gained during our practices	3. watching video, films or tapes of our team
4. attending coaching courses, seminars or conferences on soccer	4. watching other team sports live or on TV

coaches. More complete lists of most helpful and least helpful aids to coaching improvement used by this study sample are included in Appendix D, Table 6.

Using the Team-Head Coach Relationship Scale coaches who scored less than 78 on questions 1-26 were regarded as authoritarian and those scoring 79 and above, for the same questions, non-authoritarian. Only 30% of the entire sample indicated a tendency to be authoritarian with the largest representation in this group amongst the CSA sample (44.4%). Responses to questions 27 and 28 were added to this scale to determine whether or not professional and amateur coaches responded differently to criticism from various sectors and how they perceived their role priorities at their club. Their responses to these questions are listed in Table 15.

It was interesting to note that 30% of the sample, all amateur coaches, completed the question on coaching priorities, but also added some other combination responses as well. Professionals did not add to the priority list given at all and two of the amateur coaches, in their responses, perhaps explained why.

> "priorities in coaching depends on the coaching situation:
> professional coach - main priority - winning team and this will hopefully fill the stadium
> amateur coach - main priority - entertaining team and this will hopefully combine with a winning team"

> "youth coach priorities = teaching and hopefully winning
> senior club coach = entertainment and winning
> provincial select coach = player development and winning"

So winning is possibly most important for coaches at senior and professional levels. But some amateur coaches could not differentiate between entertaining and winning. For example:

> "my priority is to produce an entertaining team that wins or a winning team that entertains"

Three other amateur coaches felt that "competitiveness" and "effort" was

TABLE 15

Reaction to Criticism (% ages)

Coaches should respond to criticism from	Strongly agree	Agree a little	Neutral	Disagree a little	Strongly disagree
the press & media					
professional	-	-	1 (20)	3 (60)	1 (20)
CIAU	-	2 (14.3)	4 (14.7)	4 (28.6)	4 (28.6)
CSA	-	-	5 (26.3)	4 (21.1)	10 (32.6)
USSF	-	2 (11.1)	4 (22.2)	8 (44.4)	4 (22.2)
the fans					
professional	-	1 (20)	1 (20)	3 (60)	-
CIAU	-	2 (14.3)	5 (35.7)	3 (21.4)	8 (28.6)
CSA	-	-	4 (21.1)	5 (26.3)	10 (52.6)
USSF	-	1 (5.6)	4 (22.2)	9 (50)	4 (22.2)
the players					
professional	1 (20)	2 (40)	1 (20)	1 (20)	-
CIAU	2 (14.3)	8 (57.1)	4 (28.6)	-	-
CSA	3 (15.8)	11 (57.9)	3 (15.8)	1 (5.3)	1 (5.3)
USSF	5 (27.8)	9 (50)	-	3 (16.7)	1 (5.6)
the owner/ organization					
professional	1 (20)	2 (40)	-	2 (40)	-
CIAU	-	5 (37.7)	9 (68.3)	-	-
CSA	-	10 (52.6)	6 (31.6)	1 (5.3)	2 (10.5)
USSF	2 (11.1)	12 (66.7)	1 (5.6)	2 (11.1)	1 (5.6)

Major Priorities as a Soccer Coach

Priority to produce:					
an entertaining team					
professional	3 (50)	2 (33.5)	-	1 (16.7)	-
CIAU	3 (50)	1 (16.7)	1 (16.7)	-	1 (16.7)

TABLE 15 (Continued)

	Strongly agree	Agree a little	Neutral	Disagree a little	Strongly disagree
CSA	9 (60)	3 (20)	1 (6.7)	1 (6.7)	1 (6.7)
USSF	4 (28.6)	8 (57.1)	2 (14.3)	-	-
a winning team					
professional	5 (83.3)	1 (16.7)	-	-	-
CIAU	2 (28.6)	4 (57.1)	-	-	1 (14.3)
CSA	12 (75)	4 (25)	-	-	-
USSF	8 (57.1)	5 (35.7)	1 (7.1)	-	-
to fill the stadium with fans					
professional	3 (50)	1 (16.7)	-	1 (16.7)	1 (16.7)
CIAU	2 (33.3)	2 (33.3)	1 (16.7)	-	1 (16.7)
CSA	3 (27.3)	-	5 (45.5)	2 (18.2)	1 (9.1)
USSF	2 (15.4)	6 (46.2)	4 (30.8)	-	1 (7.7)

what they wanted to instill in their players along with player improvement, while producing good soccer was the main priority of two others.

> "I feel good soccer:- wins most games, is entertaining and this puts fans in the park. My job is to combine and train a team to play good soccer."

Two more coaches were more philosophical in their responses.

> (my main priority is) "to form a social unit with a specific aim, i.e., to use the physical, emotional and rational faculties of individuals to form a cohesive social group."

and

> "I hope to produce a winning and entertaining team but also to develop players and help them become better citizens."

The most common response of those coaches who added to the list of priorities for coaches however, concerned "enjoyment" or "making it" a "pleasant experience". For example:

> "I hope to improve players and make the season a pleasant experience."

> "My major priority is to stimulate and motivate my players, to teach them the game of soccer while making it enjoyable for all of us."

> "My major priority is to make it an enjoyable and rewarding experience for my players."

In fact 33% of the coaches who added to the list of priorities mentioned "enjoyment". Finally one coach summed up almost all of the added priorities in his response while ignoring "winning", "entertaining" and "filling the stadium with fans" altogether.

> "My major priority as a coach is to provide a meaningful, worthwhile and enjoyable experience for the players; to allow players to set personal goals and combine with other players to develop team goals; and to achieve a 100% effort from the players and myself."

This quote is certainly indicative of the majority of amateur responses

in this sample and perhaps also best represents the coaching ethos bestowed by both the CSA and USSF.

None of the coaches in this sample had coached their present club less than two years. Although seven of the amateur coaches did not initially respond to this portion of the inventory, follow-up letters and telephone calls revealed that they had in fact won more games than they had lost during the past two years (minimum). Table 16 shows clearly that the sample of coaches in this study were successful (76.6%) and in particular the USSF sample.

TABLE 16

Coaching Effectiveness Measures

	Professional	CIAU	CSA	USSF
effective 51% + success	4	9	16	17
non-effective 50% and less success	2	5	6	1
total	6	14	22	18

($p = 0.1788$)

All the CSA coaches were rated by CSA coaching experts using the effectiveness index (Appendix C) and it was interesting to note that only 46.7% of the "effective" coaches, using the won-loss information, were also rated "good" (effective) by the experts.

Table 17 clearly indicates that an objective measure of effectiveness in coaching, won-loss records, is neither reliable nor adequate as a means of determining effectiveness. Success records, after all, are only just that - success records - and so a more subjective appraisal, along the lines used in this study, of a coach's abilities ought to be used in further studies that concern coaching effectiveness.

TABLE 17

Effectiveness of the CSA Sample

CSA assessment	Effective 51% + success	Non-effective 50% and less success	
Good (15-18 points)	8	4	
Average (10-14 points)	7	2	
total	15*	6	(p = 0.5770)

* one coach had responded on behalf of another and did not appear on the lists given to the CSA experts and so was not assessed

When asked to compile an effectiveness index for soccer coaches, 3 professional coaches working in the NASL, all of whom participated in this study, suggested the following lists of criteria which should be consulted but not necessarily in the order given.

Coach A - who was rated as one of the five best soccer coaches in North America felt that effectiveness in coaching depends on the coach's ability to:

1. select and position players well,
2. maintain a good coach-team relationship,
3. motivate his players,
4. be organized and prepared on and off the field of play,
5. have a good relationship with the front office in the club,
6. have a good relationship, working and social, with the rest of the coaching and training staff, and
7. have a sound understanding of the game.

Coach B - felt that 80% of a coach's effectivness is not "tied up" in practical coaching. An effective coach must have:

1. a personality that he must be able to impose upon his players so

that they respect him.

2. an intuitive knowledge of the game that involves selection and positioning of players but also organizing practices that suit these particular players so that they obtain the most benefit from them.
3. the skill of man management and this involves motivation and communication with players but most of all consistency on the part of the coach, i.e., "if he's a nice guy he must be a nice guy to everyone - if he's a bastard he must be a bastard to everyone!"
4. personal discipline and integrity with the club officials, the players and the press and media.
5. the most modern soccer information at his fingertips, e.g., tactical and training information.
6. a love or a passion for the game even under the heat of pressure.
7. an eye for soccer talent in youth players.
8. an administrative zeal.

Coach C - who had had an outstanding professional playing career in Scotland and England highlighted the interesting complexities of NASL soccer. Whereas Coach A and Coach B had always coached soccer in North America, Coach C was able to explain all the extra qualities a North American soccer head coach must have if he is to be effective. The NASL coach must:

1. be a motivational expert and be able to get all his players - natural born North Americans and foreign players - to play 100%. A difficulty experienced is getting foreign players, who are still superior in "technique", "attitude", and "mental toughness" to North Americans, to play harder than they feel they need to, in order to keep a place on the team. Creating the best, 'happy' motivational atmosphere

amongst players is essential if teams are to play well and be successful.

2. be able to switch from direct coaching ("telling") to individual teaching depending on the situation and the particular players he is dealing with. Seasoned players often need to be "told" when they cannot work things out for themselves, whereas North Americans sometimes need to be "taught" the same things.
3. have a deep knowledge of the game.
4. most important of all, have technical and tactical flexibility. NASL coaches must adapt to "life" in the league. They must accommodate and tolerate travelling schedules and the inevitable problems and hitches; they and their players must accept and be able to adjust to time zone effects on performance; coaches in particular must be capable of changing team tactics to suit different field sizes, different textures of playing surface and different temperatures and degrees of humidity. The NASL is the only summer soccer league in the world. These qualities in coaches are 'extras' from the demands on European coaches, but, to be effective "coaches must have them".

As regards recruiting players, 93% of the sample indicated they were solely in charge of recruiting and cutting players at their club (Appendix D, Table 7). The 3 university coaches who did not place themselves in this category maintained that the 'school' was responsible for recruiting and cutting players - which is rather surprising and not quite understandable - and one CSA amateur coach, the Canadian National Team Coach maintained that this question "did not apply" to his situation - which is also puzzling. Three coaches did not respond at all to this question but in spite of this, and the 4 unexpected responses above, all of the coaches in the study sample were in sole charge of recruiting and cutting players

in their clubs.

Although the peer rating lists, from all 4 categories of coaches, contained both professional NASL coaches and national team coaches and their assistants from both Canada and America, both professional and amateur coaches in general voted NASL coaches as the most capable coaches in North America. The 5 coaches who appeared on the rating lists most often and hence may be regarded as the top coaches in North America as elected by this particular sample of soccer coaches, in rank order were:

	Name (# of 'votes')	Club	League
1.	Gordon Jago (20)	Tampa Bay Rowdies	NASL
2.	Heinnes Weismuller (17)	New York Cosmos	NASL
3.	Alan Hinton (16)	Seattle Sounders	NASL
4.	Timo Liekoski (13)	Edmonton Drillers	NASL
5.	Tony Waiters (11)	Vancouver Whitecaps (now General Manager)	NASL

Coaching Effectiveness Associations

Leadership Style

No significant statistical relationship was found in this study between coaching effectiveness, based on won-loss percentage data, and the task or interpersonal orientation of coaches. Contrary to expectation, however, and as Table 18 describes, two-thirds of the effective coaches were interpersonally oriented, as defined by Fiedler (1967), and not task oriented. This number of effective coaches constituted 49% of the entire sample in fact, and so although no statistical significance was found between coaching effectiveness and leadership style, it seems that from this study and using this sample of coaches and instruments of measuring

TABLE 18

Effectiveness and Leadership Style

LPC Category	Effective	Non-effective
Task Oriented	12	5
Interpersonally Oriented	24	8

($p = 0.7392$)

effectiveness, soccer coaches are much more likely to be effective - successful in winning games - if they are interpersonally oriented rather than task oriented.

But can such an assumption be infallibly accurate in spite of the compelling evidence in Table 18 and, more importantly, does such a statement irrevocably discredit the utility of Fiedler's Contingency Model in sporting situations? The researcher believes not but provides some reasons for doubting both assumptions in an extended critique of this particular study's attempt to test Fiedler's model later in this chapter.

Authoritarianism

Statistical significance was found in the association between coaching effectiveness and authoritarianism as Table 19 indicates, and as could be expected from the results in Table 18 above, non-authoritarian coaches were significantly more effective than authoritarian coaches. Sixty per cent of the entire sample were both effective and non-authoritarian so the evidence does appear to give full support to this association. Once again, however, the researcher suspects that even this association is not as indisputable as it may appear and, perhaps, the seeds of doubt result from the instruments used. For example, is it

TABLE 19

Effectiveness and Authoritarianism

Coaching Effectiveness	Authoritarianism	Non-authoritarianism
Effective Coaches	10	36
Non-effective Coaches	8	6

($p = 0.0114$)

likely that coaches in this sample revealed their true coaching conduct or style using the Team-Head Coach Relationship Scale? Authoritarianism and task orientation are, after all, usually regarded as 'bad words' in coaching circles these days so are coaches going to label themselves as such in a self-reported study such as this? Furthermore since amateur players are less dispensable than professional players, is it any wonder a large percentage of the coaching sample, 90% of whom are amateurs in any case, regarded themselves as non-authoritarian? And, also, in terms of leadership style, do coaches really think of their least preferred team players in terms described by Fiedler (mentioned later in Chapter IV)? Finally, did the fact that only professional coaches were actively coaching at the time of the study, affect perceptions of team players and personal coaching conduct? Had answers to all these questions been accurately determined, the resultant associations, found between coaching effectiveness and both leadership style and authoritarianism, could have been more trustworthy and credible.

Team Atmosphere

It was interesting to note that 65% of the entire sample were effective and reported coaching 'harmonious' or 'highly harmonious' teams,

and that 84.7% of the effective coaches belonged to this sample (Appendix D, Table 8). It would appear, therefore, that effective coaching and having a harmonious team atmosphere are linked but is the 'harmony' a result of the coach's endeavours or is it because of the team's success in winning games? Can the coach actually create a harmonious atmosphere or has winning produced the harmony amongst the players? While the latter seems the more likely answer, coaches do try to maintain harmony within their team members. The belief that harmonious or socially cohesive units in sports, or in any other group activity, are more effective is popular today and perhaps this is the aspect of psychology that most interests the professional coaches in this sample. However the results of studies examining the effects of cohesion upon performance in sport have not been consistent. Ball and Carron (1976) and Martens and Peterson (1971), for example, reported that successful ice hockey and basketball teams in their respective studies were more cohesive than unsuccessful teams (both studies used the Sports Cohesiveness Questionnaire). And in soccer Yaffé (1974) found a positive relationship between cohesion (in terms of interpersonal attraction) and performance success. He noted that

> "players who were friendly with one another passed the ball to each other significantly more than to those with whom they were not friendly or did not know . . . such as new signings" (p. 378).

Apparently even players who were in a position to score may not receive a pass from the ball carrier if they were not friends. An implication to coaches, from results such as these, might be that the more friends that there are on a team the more choices each player will have in a passing situation and the greater will be the performance success of a team. Team harmony, in other words, should be encouraged. But Lenk

(1969), McGrath (1962) and Landers and Luschen (1974) found some opposite effects, i.e., negative social relationships do not affect success, and that unsuccessful teams can show significantly greater interpersonal attraction than successful teams. Studies such as these, therefore, suggest that perhaps social cohesion is not as important to success in team sports as task cohesion. Consequently coaches in this sample, who could have fabricated their teams' harmoniousness in any case, need not be so concerned about 'team atmosphere' in their efforts to be successful. In spite of this, most of the effective soccer coaches in this sample were coaching 'harmonious' teams and perhaps novice coaches and in particular non-effective coaches should seriously contemplate this evidence.

Coach Role Perception

Of the total sample, 58.3% were effective and perceived their role at their club as manager/coach (Appendix D, Table 9). Only 25% (15) of the entire sample did not regard themselves as such and, perhaps rather expectedly, the only 2 coaches who perceived themselves as 'administrators' were non-effective. Since soccer coaching implies 'teaching' or 'educating' and 'coaching' of course, and the fact that someone has to physically organize and mould a group of players together, pure administrators who presumably do not get involved in these things are not likely to produce winning teams. The large majority of coaches in this study do understand that at least part of their role is as 'teacher' or 'educator' or simply 'coach' and that, in their situation, they are in sole charge of imparting soccer knowledge to players.

Time Spent on Soccer Coaching during the Season

Table 10 (Appendix D) illustrates that effective coaches spent considerably more hours per week in soccer practices, and preparations for practice or organization, during the season, than non-effective coaches. Although this association was not statistically significant the disparity between average number of hours spent per week on soccer for effective and non-effective coaches (5.3 hours per week) is very substantial. The obvious conclusion from this evidence is that coaches who spend more time with their team during the season are more likely to be successful. How exactly coaches spent this time differed according to their professional or amateur status, as mentioned earlier.

Time Spent on Soccer Coaching Out of the Season

By comparing the means in Table 10 (Appendix D) on days spent on soccer coaching out of the season it would seem that non-effective coaches are more 'actively' involved than effective coaches. This is rather puzzling particularly in the light of the previous finding but the researcher detected distinct indications of confusion and perplexity on the part of most respondents who undoubtedly found this part of the inventory 'difficult' to complete. The fault is the researcher's but the reliability of any trend or pattern originating from this section of the analysis must be regarded with suspicion.

Rating by CSA Experts

Although 71.4% of the CSA coaches were rated 'effective' according to their won-loss records, only 53.3% of these were rated 'good' (effective) by the CSA panel of coaching experts (Appendix D, Table 11). This finding is particularly interesting and revealing to the writer who had attempted, as a small part of this study, to ascertain other, more qualitative and

more congruous criteria for determining effectiveness in soccer coaching. Using won-loss data as the only indice of effective coaching does not and cannot tell anyone anything about what a coach actually does to produce successful team performances. The results shown (Appendix D, Table 10) indicate quite clearly that the 'winningest' coaches are not regarded as the most effective by eminently well-qualified experts on soccer coaching. Perhaps, therefore, the future direction for research into coaching effectiveness will involve a more intense investigation into what so-called effective coaches do, which will finally put an end to the usefulness of this handy and objective but yet so futile measurement of effectiveness in coaching.

Coaching Qualifications

More effective coaches who held coaching qualifications (66.7%) than non-effective coaches (16.7%) were 'certified' coaches, i.e., they had attained top level coaching qualifications, at least level 4, Pre-Liminary or Full Award standard (Appendix D, Table 12). This suggests that better qualified coaches are more likely to be effective which is encouraging evidence for soccer associations and their technical directors in particular, whose responsibility amongst other things, is coach development through coaching certification programmes.

Educational Data

Effective coaches outnumbered non-effective coaches on all of the categories of educational data but particularly in the 'degree' category (Appendix D, Table 13). Of the entire sample, 47.3% had at least a bachelor degree and were effective while only 15.8% of the total sample had attained degrees and were non-effective. Although there was no statistical significance found between educational data and effectiveness,

there was an apparent trend that the more academically qualified the coach in this sample, the more successful he was. It is worth noting that while 53.3% of the entire sample worked in a University environment and were expected to have degrees, 6 CSA coaches and 2 professionals also held post graduate degrees.

Number of Years Coaching Experience

Although there was no significant relationship found between effective coaching and years of coaching experience, they do seem to be associated. Effective coaches, for example, had coached on average 6 more years than non-effective coaches (Appendix D, Table 14).

Number of Years Playing Experience

Effective coaches had played on average, 2 more years than non-effective coaches but again no statistical significance was found in this relationship (Appendix D, Table 14).

Number of Years as Captain

Effective coaches on average had had 1 year less experience as captain than non-effective coaches but this was not a statistically significant finding.

Summarizing, therefore, the most interesting associations with coaching effectiveness in this study suggest that effective coaches use an interpersonal leadership style, are non-authoritarian ($p = 0.0114$), have harmony in team atmosphere, spend more time on coaching soccer during the season and have a superior number of years of coaching experience.

Coach Authoritarianism Associations

Leadership Style

The comparison between LPC and Team-Head Coach Relationship measures indicate that interpersonal orientation and non-authoritarianism are related. As shown in Table 20 below, while only 12.2% of the total sample were authoritarian and task oriented, 44.9% were both interpersonally oriented and non-authoritarian.

TABLE 20

Authoritarianism and Leadership Style

LPC Measure	Authoritarian	Non-authoritarian
Task Oriented	6	11
Interpersonally Oriented	10	22

($p = 0.7738$)

In this particular study, non-authoritarianism was linked more closely with coaching effectiveness than authoritarianism, and interpersonal orientation and non-authoritarianism do appear to be very similar measures of a coach's motivational style. Although there is little evidence to suggest that task orientation and authoritarianism are synonymous terms perhaps interpersonal orientation and non-authoritarianism are similar terms, and provide similarities in personality measures of soccer coaches.

Coach Age

Authoritarian coaches were, on average, slightly older than non-authoritarian coaches (Appendix D, Table 15) which is slightly surprising.

The older individuals in the sample were expected to be less authoritarian. This expectation stems from coach behavior studies like that of Sage (1974) using the MACH V scale which includes authoritarian measures. Measures of Machiavellianism derived from this scale and according to Sage point out that:

> "High-machs manipulate more, win more, are persuaded less, persuade others more . . . are markedly less likely to become emotionally involved with other people, or with sensitive issues . . . have a generally unflattering opinion of others and a cynical view of people in general. Low-machs, on the other hand, are more inclined towards valuing affective involvement with others and tending to believe that interpersonal relations should be governed by strict humanist, or ethical, norms" (cited in Coakley, 1978, p. 219).

Sage found a statistical significance in his study between coach age and scores on this scale, i.e., the older the coaches, the lower their scores on the scale. Sage explained his findings by pointing out that the effectiveness of any effort to involve and motivate athletes usually requires awareness, sensitivity and compassion

> " - and coaches who totally lack these qualities may continually experience morale problems on their teams that could in turn be destructive to both individual and team performances" (cited in Coakley, 1978, p. 220).

Years of Coaching and Playing Experience

Authoritarian coaches had coached almost 3 years (2.65 years) less than non-authoritarian coaches and had 1 year less playing experience (Appendix D, Table 15). Perhaps this and the findings above indicate that the authoritarian attitudes of coaches 'mellow' with greater experience and exposure to soccer playing and coaching situations.

Job Tenure

Since almost half the entire sample (46.6%) were both non-authori-

tarian and on contract (had tenured employment) with their clubs, there does not appear to be any relationship or association between authoritarianism and job tenure (Appendix D, Table 16). Since 76.5% of the non-tenured coaches were also non-authoritarian, having contractual employment or not does not seem to have influenced coach motivational style at all.

Role at the Club

While 75% of the sample described their role with their club as manager/coach only 31.1% of these coaches were authoritarian (Appendix D, Table 16). In line with the finding above, therefore, there does not appear to be any relationship between perceived coach role and motivational style in coaching.

Number of Captaincy Years

Authoritarian coaches captained soccer teams 1 year more than non-authoritarian coaches and although this difference is not statistically significant, it is interesting (Appendix D, Table 15). Perhaps captains or leaders on the soccer field carry playing attitudes into coaching and that being chosen as a 'player leader' early on encourages or possibly develops a latent authoritarian leadership style in coaching.

Authoritarian measures in this study, therefore, do not appear to be related with task orientation, coach age and job security. Non-authoritarianism, on the other hand, does seem to be associated with interpersonal motivational style and length of playing and coaching experience.

Leadership Style Associations

Years of Coaching and Playing Experience

Task oriented coaches on average had coached almost 2 years more than interpersonally oriented coaches but had played almost 1 year less (Appendix D, Table 17).

Team Atmosphere

Of the sample, 67.2% were interpersonally oriented coaches and had 'harmonious' or 'highly harmonious' teams (Appendix D, Table 18). Only 26.5% of the entire sample were task oriented and had harmonious teams. An interesting finding was that two of the interpersonally oriented coaches described their teams as 'not harmonious'.

Role at the Club

Almost half of the entire sample (49%) of coaches who were interpersonally oriented also described their role as manager/coach (Appendix D, Table 19). As suggested earlier, job security or status position did not seem to be associated with either authoritarianism or task orientation. In fact this sample of soccer coaches appeared to be less autocratic and more person oriented if they had tenured positions.

Job Tenure

No significant difference was found between coaches who had or had not tenured positions and their leadership styles. Furthermore, and in support of the above, of the 78.7% of tenured coaches, 67.6% were interpersonally oriented (Appendix D, Table 19). Only 25% of non-tenured coaches, on the other hand, were task oriented.

Time Spent Coaching Soccer In and Out of the Season

Interpersonally oriented coaches spent, on average, 5 hours per week more with their teams during the season but there was little difference between task and interpersonally oriented coaches and the days spent on coaching out of the season (Appendix D, Table 20).

Marital Status

No significance was found in the relationship between leadership style and marital status (Appendix D, Table 21). Three of the 4 'divorced or separated' coaches and 2 of the 3 'single' coaches were interpersonally oriented which suggests that 'marital insecurity' does not affect motivational style for this sample of coaches.

Years of Captaincy Experience

Task oriented coaches, very much like authoritarian coaches, had captained sides, on average, 1 year more than interpersonally oriented coaches (in this sample) which suggests that certain leadership qualities, learned during a playing career, might be carried into coaching careers also.

The strongest associations found in this section of the analysis suggest that task oriented coaches are more likely to have coached longer; while interpersonally oriented coaches are more likely to have harmonious teams, have tenured coaching positions, regard themselves as manager or coach of their clubs and spend a lot more time on coaching their teams during the season.

Predicting Coaching Effectiveness in Soccer Using Fiedler's Model

Fiedler's Contingency Theory was conveniently categorized earlier (in Chapter II) as a "situational-trait" theory but his theory can also

be described as interactional. He has suggested, for instance, that leadership effectiveness is dependent upon the interaction between the rigidity or structure of the social context in which the power is exerted and the degree to which the leader is task or people oriented. But whether or not we regard his Contingency Theory as "situational" or "interactional", Fiedler has no doubts about his predictions on leadership effectiveness. He would predict that task centred leaders will prove effective for highly structured teams, which perform in situations where excellence is expected, and in front of spectators (or owners, or Athletic Directors) who impose a great deal of pressure and stress - and it is because of these situational variables that the writer expected to find the task oriented soccer coaches much more effective (had better won-loss records) than interpersonally oriented coaches. However, results in this study clearly do not support this expectation - in fact a statistical significance was found between effectiveness and interpersonal orientation. The following, therefore, is an attempt to explain (A) why this "opposite to expectation" result was found, (B) the weaknesses and problems of using LPC measures in soccer, and (C) the problems with the Contingency Theory in general pertaining to interacting team sports like soccer.

A. Besides the more obvious factors that could have contaminated the testing of Fiedler's Theory, mentioned earlier on p. 82, one factor alone in this study could have led to or predicted some unexpected findings - coaches in this study were working at virtually the same level of competition and so in the absence of differences in their "situational parameters" the model was not adequately tested. Both Inciong (1974) and Danielson (1976) made the same 'mistake' in their attempts to test the utility of Fiedler's Model in sports - they too used coaches in the same sports (in respective studies) who were working at the same level of competition -

and consequently did not find any evidence in support of the model. It could be argued that professionals are working at a different level from amateurs but whether their task is any different from amateur coaches is questionable. In any case only 6 professionals took part in the study. The writer. therefore, suspects that Fiedler's Model was not tested properly because variance in the dimension of situational favourableness was not present. Had professional coaches and bantam or pee-wee coaches been compared (or perhaps major and minor league amateur coaches) then differences in the coaching situation would have been more discrete and appropriate for testing this theory.

In spite of the above flaw in the testing procedure, the assumptions regarding situational favourableness in this study may also have precluded the possibility of testing Fiedler's Theory from the outset. These could actually have led to contradictory expectations in the results with or without flaws in testing procedure. First, Fiedler views that leader-member relations (the most important component of the situation) are independent of the leadership style, i.e., it is irrelevant to leader-member relations whether the leader is task oriented or interpersonally oriented. While this may be a valid supposition in the short term the writer wonders if, over a long association, the soccer coach's style will have an affect upon leader-member relations? It also seems reasonable, for example, that interpersonally oriented coaches (the characteristic of high LPC individuals) might foster positive leader-member relations. Second, is the task structure actually similar for all coaches in this study? While winning is undoubtedly important to all coaches (and players) professional and amateurs, perhaps it is not so important for some as for others. The writer is considering the responses by some amateur coaches to their "priorities in the club" (p. 72) and some recent

comments made by NASL head coaches who have publicly announced their expectations of their team as each season reaches its midpoint. All NASL coaches would probably regard reaching "the play-offs" as a definite target each season thus they do expect to lose some games. The New York Cosmos coach on the otherhand, because of the team's reputation and the money he has at his disposal to buy the best players, will probably want to win every game (home and away), be top of the NASL standings at the end of season and win the NASL play-offs. Coaches, in other words, may be more realistic in their expectations and consider to have 'won' certain games (which they have lost) where the opposition is simply superior and invincible, by achieving certain accomplishments in the game, e.g., so many shots on target, so many corners, keeping the score lower than the previous seasons, etc. Third, although almost all of the coaches in the study sample (whether they had tenured posts or not) were responsible for recruiting and cutting players, what exactly is the nature of their position power? It seems that all soccer coaches at the top levels of competition inevitably look over their shoulders at the person who is really in charge - the real leader - i.e., team owners or Athletic Directors. If coaches do well (get results) they can relax and 'do their own thing' but if they suddenly lose so many games their jobs are often on the line no matter how successful they have been in the past. So perhaps team owners and Athletic Directors, who can never be so up-to-date with soccer as their coaches, are the real position power leaders? Soccer coaches might therefore be regarded as pawns, almost as dispensable as players, and not leaders (in Fiedler's terminology) at all - they are just decision makers who have to live with the responsibility and consequences of making "right decisions".

Summarizing therefore, the unexpected finding from this study that interpersonally oriented coaches were most effective could have resulted from inadequate testing procedure and from certain assumptions regarding situational favourableness in soccer that were mistakenly taken for granted by the researcher. However, more serious problems concerning specifically the LPC scale of measurement must now be mentioned in order to explain the limitations, if not futility, of using such an instrument in studying the motivational style of coaches.

B. First, is it always true a leader must be primarily oriented toward either people or tasks? Although Fiedler is careful to note that the LPC score is an index of which is more important to the leader, people or tasks, we can wonder whether or not the two are equally important to some leaders. Some theorists (e.g., Blake and Mouton [1964]) have urged that if leaders are to be maximally effective, they should be highly concerned about both people and tasks, and the results of some experiments (e.g., Misumi et al. [1967]) support the hypothesis that a focus on both people and tasks may not only be possible but may be more productive than a focus on either tasks or people alone. Second, which is related to whether or not coaches actually perceive their least preferred co-worker (player) in the manner described by Fiedler, the LPC instrument should include only non-task personal attributes. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) claim that

> "a low LPC score indicates the degree to which an individual is ready to reject completely those with whom he cannot work, an attitude which is reflected by describing them in negative terms on attributes which are not directly related to their work (p. 74) (emphasis added).

But the bipolar items included in the LPC scale, e.g., "unfriendly", "uncooperative", "quarrelsome" and especially "inefficient", might be

extremely job or task relevant in some situations. Because of these factors Schriesheim and Kerr (in Hunt and Larson, 1977) conclude that "the LPC instrument suffers from content invalidity" (p. 25). Third, the coaches in this sample, who may not have been able to describe their LPC using the aforementioned items in any case, may also have biased their responses because of other problems inherent in using semantic differential scales. Heise (in Hunt and Larson, 1977, p. 27) indicated that two problems with these scales are unequal intervals between the response categories and the possibility of inaccurate responses because of response styles. Since styles of leadership are determined by scores accumulated on the LPC items, these two weaknesses inherent in semantic differential scales could seriously have affected the scores for coaches in this study. One coach actually "confessed" on his LPC response sheet that he "guessed" some responses and simply could not conceive of his LPC (player) in the manner required. Finally, as if perceiving the LPC (players) in the manner required was not confusing enough, how exactly is the LPC score interpreted? Fiedler himself has noted

> "Understanding LPC has been a maddening and frustrating odyssey. For nearly 20 years, we have been attempting to correlate it with every conceivable personality trait and every conceivable behaviour observation score. By and large these analyses have been uniformly fruitless (Fiedler and Chemers, [1974], p. 74).

Fiedler went on to state that

> "it now appears that LPC is an index of a motivational hierarchy, or of behavioural preferences . . . (and) that such hierarchies exist is a well-known fact of everyday life" (p. 74-76).

If indeed the LPC scale produces an index of the goal hierarchy of coaches this would mean that coaches initially pursue primary goals (task accomplishment for the low LPC and relationship for the high LPC)

and then, once this is achieved, direct their attention to secondary goals. The logical conclusion from this then is that coach behaviour is in part determined by whether the situation is conducive to the attainment of the leader's primary need. But situations in soccer (and in all sports) are continually changing - consider the different roles coaches have at games and in practices, for example - so can there be a hierarchy of goals in each situation that suits the coach's motivational style? Some researchers believe not, and as Miner (1973) has observed,

> "research to date has provided little support for the concept of a fixed motive hierarchy" (p. 319).

In conclusion, Fiedler's LPC scale can be criticized because it "lacks sufficient evidence of construct, content, predictive and concurrent validity and test-retest reliability" (Hunt and Larson, p. 27) and like the above authors, the writer feels that the evidence concerning the instrument, especially in sport situations, does not support its continued usage. But let the attention now be focused on Fiedler's Theory itself.

C. Fiedler's Contingency Theory has been heavily criticized by a number of researchers (e.g., Schriesheim and Kerr in Hunt and Larson [1977] and Chelladurai and Carron [1978]) who, for various reasons, have suggested, either explicitly or implicity that attempts to understand leadership would be better facilitated if the theory was abandoned altogether. The writer feels this is excessive. However, the following six weaknesses in the Contingency Theory which became more obvious nearer the completion of this particular study, are very apparent. Perhaps these weaknesses lend support to moves away from using Fiedler's work in similar sport situations in the future and particularly in the study of coaching effectiveness in any sport.

First, the Contingency Theory is built entirely around LPC as the measure of leader (coach) motivation-orientation. For reasons mentioned earlier, this instrument, in the writer's opinion, is a highly speculative and dubious measure of a coach's (motivational) style, which according to Fiedler, is paramount.

Second, as Fiedler (1967) noted himself

> "there are many other dimensions which should influence the favourableness of the situation for the leader" (p. 151)

besides those of leader-member relations, task structure and position power. In this study the writer would expect variables of stress, cultural and linguistic heterogeneity of players, and the training background and experience of players to affect the favourableness of the situation for each coach. In fact, one professional coach highlighted those same difficulties facing coaches working in the NASL.

Third, even if leader-member relations, task structure and position power did cover all the favourable dimensions of coaching situations, Fiedler's Theory fails to explain how these variables are expected to interact in such situations. This lack of meaningful explanatory power renders the theory non-operational, i.e., making it impossible for any researcher to test the theory's underlying assumptions.

Fourth, in connection with the above, why did Fiedler weight leader-member relations more than task structure and position power? No explicit rationale has ever been presented and defended for the weightings used in his theory. To assume that the personal relationship between followers and leaders is the most important variable in soccer coaching is to say the least, very doubtful indeed. For example, in situations between coach and team owner (athletic director) or between player and coach, in which the team owner and coach (in respective examples) have virtually life and

death power over their followers, personal relationships may pale in comparison with the effect exerted by the power variable.

Fifth, largely because of the lack of explanatory power mentioned earlier, the generality of the Contingency Theory (i.e., across industrial, managerial and sporting situations) is not sound. As much contradictory evidence has been found in industry and sport as supporting evidence and the writer concurs with Schriesheim and Kerr (in Hunt and Larson, 1977) who maintain that:

> "it is obvious that the (Contingency) Theory suffers from several major shortcomings and problems which are sufficient to seriously impair its usefulness" (p. 13).

Finally, and particularly in the light of the present study, it is also worth noting that the Contingency Theory provides no explicit predictions concerning subordinate satisfaction or motivation. It also fails to take into account the effects of subordinate performance upon subsequent leader behaviour. This is surely the most important omission in a study concerning coaching effectiveness and an aspect that could have explained more accurately coach-player interactions in general and how these could affect LPC scores. Studies that try to determine specific aspects of coaching effectiveness must also consider how leader-member relations develop and change over time and how subordinate performance affects leader perceptions of leader-member relations - using the Contingency Theory to study such simplistic yet important effects would be fruitless.

In summary, to suggest abandoning the Contingency Theory and its constructs in leadership research would seem rather harsh, but in the light of this study, no support can be given for its continued usage in determining coaching effectiveness in interacting team sports. The

utility of the Contingency Theory therefore (if it can be called a theory at all), in leadership research in sports, and in the writer's opinion, is extremely limited indeed.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

The main purpose of this study involved an investigation of relationships between the characteristics of top North American soccer coaches and their team performances. More specifically coach motivational style, measured by Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) Scale, was compared with coach effectiveness, measured in terms of won-loss data percentages in games over a period of at least two years. Sixty soccer coaches from all over North America comprised the study sample and included professionals (6) from the North American Soccer League (NASL) and Major Indoor Soccer League, and amateurs from Canadian (CIAU, 26) and U. S. Universities (USSF, 22) and top clubs across Canada (CSA, 31). Each coach provided study data by completing a 4 part questionnaire.

The first part of the questionnaire collected descriptive data on personal background, training data and present appointment duties and commitments. The mean age of the sample was 39.9 years of age (range 28 years - 59 years). Eighty-four point five percent were married and only 8.6% divorced or separated. Most married coaches had at least 1 child and the mode for each of the 4 categories of coaches was 2.

Although 57.3% of the total sample were born in Europe, 59% indicated they had lived longest in North America. Over 80% of the sample had attained post high school educational awards, either diplomas or degrees - and 50% held post-graduate degrees - either Masters degree or Ph.D. NASL and CSA coaches, who had spent most of their youth in European soccer cultures, reported greater playing experience (number of years)

and titles won playing than USSF and CIAU coaches but professional coaches (10.2 years) had not coached as long as amateurs (16.1 average). Of the 4 categories of coaches the CIAU sample was least well qualified in terms of coaching qualifications held, but 83% of the total sample had been certified as coaches by various soccer associations. While 55% of the sample had experienced coaching other sports, 50% of these had also won titles in these other sports.

NASL coaches spent almost 4 hours per day more on soccer than amateurs during the season, primarily on preparation and organization, while amateurs spent most of their time scouting or recruiting players. Out of the season NASL coaches again spent their time mostly on preparation and organization. Neither professional nor amateurs in this sample appeared to be heavily involved in soccer camps or clinics.

While 75% of the sample regarded their role at their club as "manager or coach", 7 (amateur) coaches felt their role was a "combination of various jobs", 5 regarded their role as "educator" and 2 (CIAU coaches) felt they were primarily "administrators".

Part two of the questionnaire contained five instruments. First, Fiedler's LPC scale, measuring coach motivational style, revealed that 54.2% of the sample were interpersonally oriented, 28.8% were task oriented and 16.9% were neither one nor the other. Second, Fiedler's Team Atmosphere Scale indicated that 83.3% of the sample felt that their teams were harmonious or highly harmonious. Third, the Self-Rating Scale indicated that 55% of the coaches were "satisfied" with their coaching ability, 33.3% were "not sure" and 11.7% were "dissatisfied". When compared to experts' assessments of the CSA coaching effectiveness, there was an apparent discrepancy in perceived abilities - 64% of the CSA coaches declared they were 'satisfied' with their own ability but only 31% were

rated as 'good' by the panel of experts. Fourth, the Self-Improvement Scale revealed that both professionals and amateurs learn most about coaching from 2 soccer activities - 'experience learned during games and practices' and 'thinking about their team and how to improve their coaching'. Finally, the Team-Head Coach Relationship Scale, measuring degrees of authoritarian attitudes of coaches toward coaching situations, revealed that only 30% of the sample were authoritarian.

Parts three and four of the questionnaire investigated, respectively, the effectiveness of coaches measured in percentages of games won or lost, and opinions of other coaches working in North America. Results indicated that 76.6% of the study sample of coaches were 'effective' although only 46.7% of the 'effective' CSA coaches were also rated 'good' by the experts. Votes from the peer rating lists from the 4 categories of coaches declared 5 NASL coaches as the top five coaches in North American Soccer.

Statistical treatments using t tests of independence, Chi square tests of independence and the Phi Coefficient involved 3 dependent variables - coaching effectiveness, authoritarianism and leadership style - and the following relationships were later examined:

1. Coaching Effectiveness and:
   - leadership style; authoritarianism; team atmosphere, coach role perception; time spent in season and out of season; coaching qualifications and educational data.

     <u>supplemental</u> - CSA expert ratings; number of years coaching, playing and playing captaincy.
2. Coach Authoritarianism and:
   - leadership style; coach age; years of coaching experience; playing experience; job tenure; role perception and captaincy years.

3. Leadership Style and:

   - years of coaching experience; team atmosphere; role perception; time spent coaching in and out of playing season; years playing experience; job tenure; marital status; and captaincy years.

Conclusions

Based on the evidence drawn from this particular study, the following conclusions may be drawn.

1. Contrary to expectation, coaching effectiveness in soccer is associated with interpersonal motivational style and non-authoritarianism ($p = 0.014$). Team harmony also appears to be important.
2. Effective soccer coaches spend more time with their teams and also prepare or organize for practices more than non-effective coaches.
3. Using won-loss data as an objective measure of coaching effectiveness is too simplistic, inaccurate and basically meaningless. Evidently winningest coaches are not necessarily the most effective coaches.
4. Better educated and, most especially, better qualified coaches, are more likely to be successful.
5. Effective coaches tend to have greater experience both as a player and especially as a coach, than non-effective coaches.
6. Non-authoritarianism seems to be related to interpersonal-motivational styles of coaching behaviour and to the length of exposure to soccer, i.e., playing and/or coaching experience.
7. There is little evidence to suggest that authoritarianism is linked to either task motivational style, coach age or job security as was previously thought.
8. While task oriented coaches may have coached longer than interpersonally oriented coaches, the latter are more likely to have harmonious teams,

have tenured coaching positions, perceive themselves as coaches only of their clubs and spend a lot more time on coaching their teams during the season.

Implications

While the evidence to support the usage of Fiedler's Contingency Model (and in particular the LPC scale) in coaching effectiveness studies is, at the very least, confusing, this study has illustrated that effective coaching may be linked to interpersonal motivational style and, most certainly, non-authoritarianism. While few (if any) researchers have even considered the possibility, motivational styles (task and interpersonal) are perhaps similar personality dispositional assessments as degrees of authoritarianism? In any event it does seem probable that effective coaching is linked to interpersonal style and non-authoritarianism. After all, is it not true that effective "educators" initially present their own structure for learning or coaching and then gradually, as team members become more capable, transfer more and more decision-making to them?

Support for the relationship found between the authoritarian measures and effective coaching in this study is evidenced in Sage's (1972) work. His conclusions were that coaches are not always as inhuman and insensitive as many would imagine. However, the writer would like to point out that, in the light of this studies' attempt to unravel the enigma of effective coaching behaviour, the rigid authoritarian mentor may still produce some positive actions in, especially, competitive situations. For example, teams under stress, if relatively unexperienced, may be more comfortable with a strong leader and an authoritarian personality may in fact relate better to athletes who possess similar traits. However, while

this may be true, a strictly authoritarian coach may also be impeded in the sensitivity and flexibility he can exhibit, when attempting to understand and handle interpersonal problems that inevitably arise on teams. Also, such rigidity may prevent the coach from examining and using new and potentially helpful practices indicated by research not only in the biological and behavioural sciences, but in technical publications as well. Clearly, therefore, there are greater advantages by being an energetic but human coach.

The merits of using Fiedler's Contingency Model in investigations of coaching effectiveness have already been criticised (Chapter IV, p. 98) so we are left to wonder which approach would be best to facilitate informative data on this enigma which could be used to improve the structuring of training experiences for prospective coaches. In the writer's opinion the most flagrant flaw in the present study and Fiedler's Contingency Theory was the exclusion of subordinate (player) perception of coach effectiveness. Coaches in this sample generally, had won more games than they had lost and hence were regarded as effective. However, those so-called 'effective' coaches who also declared 'personal satisfaction' in their own coaching ability, were undoubtedly humbled when their effectiveness was judged by coaching experts who were asked to use the writer's effectiveness index and also ignore won-loss data for each coach. It would be interesting to investigate just how much more humbled these coaches would have felt had their players also been asked to rate their effectiveness! Clearly more information, provided by using other measurement techniques, is required from studies on coaching effectiveness if coach training procedures can be augmented. Although data on time spent on coaching in or out of the season and reports from the Self-Improvement scale taken from this study could help increase normative data on

what 'good' 'effective' coaches actually do, there are other, better ways to extract such information.

Two techniques that focus directly on what coaches actually do, are the Coaching Behaviour Observation System (CBOS) presently being perfected by Dr. Murray Smith (1978) at the University of Alberta and the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS) (Smith, Smoll and Hunt [1977]). While the CBOS, in the writer's opinion, is the more exact and precise coding system of coaching behaviours, it has not been subjected to the same verification procedures as the CBAS. For example, Smith, Smoll and Hunt (1979) incorporated the CBAS in a training programme for youth coaches and asked both the coaches and their players to reflect on aspects of their behaviour. Their results provided evidence of vast discrepancies in effectiveness measures and also produced conclusive evidence that certain specific coaching behaviours were highly related to 'liking for the coach' and the 'desire to play for 'him' again'. Also in relation to this present study winning percentages were described as "essentially unrelated". The explicit goals of the guidelines, which included the desirability of reinforcement, encouragement and technical instruction designed to elicit and strengthen desirable behaviours, were to increase positive interactions between coach and players, as well as among teammates. Supplementing these guidelines coaches were provided with concrete suggestions for communicating effectively with players and gaining their respect. By incorporating either the CBOS or CBAS in future studies of coaching effectiveness, and including some self monitoring and behavioural feedback (from players) in the analysis, we can then, more accurately, answer the following important questions which are of interest to prospective coaches. What qualities are athletes looking for in their designated team leaders? What personal qualities are disliked by athletes in their leaders, coaches

and trainers? And finally, what personal qualities are important in coaches and how do specific qualities of coaches interact with specific needs and psychological tendencies of athletes? In helping to answer the latter question, coaches, professionals in particular, would welcome more psychological research done on individuals who play team sports. One professional coach, commenting on the study's findings that only professional coaches found sport psychology books and articles 'helpful', explained that where technical ability levels and fitness were relatively similar (i.e., in the professional game) greater knowledge about interfering or helpful psychological factors was extremely desirable. But while finding out what coaches actually do and increasing psychological research will augment training procedures for prospective coaches, must we ignore the development of leadership models for sports totally?

Future researchers must realize at the outset that any theoretical attempt to develop leadership models in sport (or organizational settings) is solely dependent upon the establishment of adequate leadership instruments. Fiedler's Model in sport situations has already been shown to be inappropriate largely because of the rigidity and incompleteness of situational variables, but also because of its reliance on LPC measurements of motivational style. As mentioned earlier (Chapter IV, p. 96) the validity of the LPC scale alone is seriously questioned and so we must re-direct the attention of developing the validity of other scales like the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) presently being researched by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980). The writer is confident that while the selected factors - training and instruction, democratic and autocratic behaviour, social support and positive feedback - may still not represent all of the variables confounding situations for effective coaching, the LSS provides the best and most futuristic tool for leadership research in

sport. Furthermore, the LSS, which incorporates response data of subordinates, has similarities to other scales used in other fields and this could facilitate comparisons with and extensions of research findings from those fields. The Multidimensional Model using the LSS, in other words, has the potential of becoming the first generalisable sport theory to transcend all leadership situations.

Recommendations

The following recommendations for further study are based on the results of this investigation and the evident lack of research concerning coaching effectiveness in general.

1. As Campbell (1977) has suggested:

> "We are in grave danger of transforming the study of leadership to a study of self-report questionnaire behaviour . . . the method is too quick, too cheap and too easy, and there are now many such questionnaire measures that possess no construct validity whatever" (p. 229).

Future studies therefore must involve subjective subordinate, perceptions of effective leadership and, if possible, avoid the use of self-report questionnaires altogether.

2. To establish what good coaches actually do, the most interesting and refreshing approach that should be used is simple observation. Observational systems like the CBOS (Smith, 1978) and CBAS (Smith et al., 1979) have already provided excellent and interesting data on coach behaviours which together with subordinate feedback and verification must surely present the best direction future research can take.

3. If indeed a theory of coaching effectiveness in sport is plausible, given so many factors that have to be considered, the Multidimensional

Model (Chelladurai, 1978) incorporating the LSS (Chelladurai and Saleh [1980]) would seem to be the best equipped model and test instrument for validation across all levels of sport involvement and in different sports. The use of Fiedler's Contingency Model in future research ought to be discouraged.

4. In interacting team sports, like soccer, future research should also endeavour to explain the effects of formal and informal 'field' leadership on team success and also investigate how much of the leadership of a sports team should come from team members and how much from a coach.

5. More research using top level professional coaches and players could provide useful information on patterns of leadership in sporting situations where confounding variables like levels of ability, application and fitness are similar. Perhaps such research might shed light on how coaches overcome these baseline variables and turn situations in their favour. Results from such research would be the clearest evidence of effective coaching.

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APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE

c/o Department of Physical Education
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
T6G 2H9

26th January, 1981

Dear

I am a member of Aberdeen University's (Scotland) physical education staff on leave of absence and currently studying Sports Psychology at the University of Alberta, Edmonton. Over the last eight years I have been personally involved in coaching soccer following an abrupt end to a five year part-time professional playing career (through injury), and as well as Aberdeen University have coached Scottish Universities and British Universities representative sides.

My purpose in writing you and sending the enclosed documents is to obtain descriptive data on your approach to leadership in soccer. The data is non-evaluative, i.e., it will not, in fact cannot, reflect an individual's ability and I merely hope to describe Patterns of Leadership amongst the Best Soccer Coaches in North America. The data will comprise my M.A. thesis and your important responses, forwarded to me directly in the enclosed envelope, will be held by myself in the strictest confidence. Your response will join others from coaches selected from the N.A.S.L., A.S.L., M.I.S.L. and top amateur league clubs across Canada. I have enclosed two photocopied letters of endorsement from Mr. Graham Leggat (formerly General Manager of the Edmonton Drillers) and Mr. Timo Liekoski (Drillers Coach) who along with Mr. Jay Hoffman (Drillers Assistant Coach) advised me on the construction of this questionnaire.

Previous research in this area has so far been restricted to business and industry, but it has recently been extended into American Football and Basketball and Canadian Basketball (C.I.A.U.). I feel therefore this will be a worthwhile soccer study, the first of its kind, and eagerly look forward to receiving your response. Once you have read the instructions the questionnaire should only take you 20-25 minutes to complete and while I fully realize how busy you can be as a top coach, in and out of season, I sincerely hope you can find the time to complete the questionnaire - and return it to me before Saturday, 28th February, 1981.

Thank you very much, in anticipation of your response, and the best of luck to you and your Club in 1981.

Yours sincerely,

Sandy Gordon

SG:ecw

Encl:

PATTERNS OF LEADERSHIP AMONGST THE BEST

SOCCER COACHES IN NORTH AMERICA

researcher: Sandy Gordon

I am acquainted with the research proposal, outlined above, and have met with the particular student on a few occasions.

I would like to endorse this particular study and its attempt to describe leadership patterns amongst our best coaches in North America because the student is trying to describe what good coaches actually do. This I feel is a different but interesting approach to the study of coaching and one worth exploring.

I continue to support all efforts that might hasten the development of soccer in North America, in this case soccer coaching, and by responding to the study questionnaire, you will be also.

Best Regards,

Graham

GRAHAM LEGGAT

EDMONTON DRILLERS SOCCER CLUB
OPERATED BY EDMONTON NASL SOCCER ENTERPRISES LTD.
10039 JASPER AVENUE - SUITE 200
EDMONTON, ALBERTA T5J 1T4
TELEPHONE: (403) 428-8989
TELEX: 037-42648
MEMBER: NORTH AMERICAN SOCCER LEAGUE

PATTERNS OF LEADERSHIP AMONGST THE BEST

SOCCER COACHES IN NORTH AMERICA

RESEARCHER:
Sandy Gordon

Mr. Sandy Gordon has shared the views of his research project with me and I find his study worthwhile to pursue further.

I find the study not only an interesting, but a unique one. As it attempts to find out how good coaches achieve good results, I believe that this study is worth supporting.

I would greatly appreciate your help in answering and returning the questionnaire to the researcher.

Timo Liekoski

The Canadian Soccer Association

MEMORANDUM

FROM: Bill Thomson

TO: Canadian Coaches

DATE: January 20th, 1981

COPIES TO: A. Hylan
R. Forrester

RE: Coaching Survey

Gentlemen:

The enclosed coaching questionnaire from Mr. Sandy Gordon is approved by the Canadian Soccer Association.

Mr. Gordon's study will be of great interest to the C.S.A. and may well have implications for the future development of the certification program. The personal questionnaire information which you provide, however, will remain confidential with Mr. Gordon, and the C.S.A. will only receive the results of his study.

I hope you will take the time to complete the questionnaire and comply with his requests in the interest of increasing our total soccer knowledge.

Yours sincerely,

Bill Thomson
Technical Director

BT/ja

Encl.

333 RIVER RD., OTTAWA, ONT. K1L 8B9 / TEL.(613) 746-0060

First Reminder

c/o Department of Physical Education
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
T6G 2H9
(432-5503)
2nd March 1981

Patterns of Leadership Amongst the Best Soccer Coaches in North America

M.A. research project - University of Alberta

Dear

A package containing explanatory letters and a research questionnaire was sent to you in respect of the above study. Your package should have arrived approximately three weeks ago and so assuming you have received this material I would be very much obliged if you could return your completed questionnaire, in the stamped addressed envelope provided, at your earliest convenience. If you have not received your material please contact me at the above address or telephone number, as soon as possible.

I fully realize how busy you must be at the moment, whether in or out of the soccer season, but I do hope you can find the time to complete your inventory which will join the many other responses which have arrived already from NASL, ASL, MISL, CSA, CIAU and USSF coaches.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely,

Sandy Gordon

P.S. Ignore this letter if you have completed the questionnaire and sent it back, JUST RECENTLY.

Second Reminder

c/o Department of Physical Education
University of Alberta
Edmonton, Alberta
T6G 2H9
(423-5503)
23rd March 1981

Patterns of Leadership Amongst the Best Soccer Coaches in North America

M.A. research project - University of Alberta

Dear

Approximately four weeks ago you should have received a package containing explanatory letters outlining the above project and the project questionnaire. A stamped addressed envelope for the questionnaire's return was enclosed in this package. If you have not received your package please contact me immediately at the above address (or telephone number).

Two weeks ago you were also sent a reminder, requesting you to return the completed questionnaire at your earliest convenience. This second reminder urges you again to do the same because your response is vital to the study sample which includes amateurs and professionals from both Canada and America. The sample must be 'representative' of the best coaches in North America. Therefore please return your completed inventory to me as soon as possible.

If you returned your questionnaire just recently, thank you and please ignore this note.

Yours sincerely,

Sandy Gordon

P.S.: Non-responses will be reported in this study and so if you have any particular reason(s) why you could not complete and return your questionnaire perhaps you'd like to let me know.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS TO RESPONDENTS

The following pages of this questionnaire contain a number of lengthy questions which require only short written replies or in most cases check (✓) or circle responses. Please do not be put off by the size of the document or the length of questions.

Read the instructions and questions carefully and answer as instructed as quickly as you feel necessary. The questionnaire should not take longer than 20 minutes to complete.

The document is in 4 parts:

1. Coach Background Information

   A. Personal Data
   B. Training Data - educational
      - playing experience
      - coaching experience; qualifications held; present appointment; and 'other' coaching experience or qualifications
   C. Present Appointment - duties and commitments

2. Instruments

   A. Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (L.P.C.)
   B. Team Atmosphere Scale (T.A.)
   C. Self Rating Scale
   D. Self Improvement Scale
   E. Team-Head Coach Relationship

3. Won-Lost Record (after the last 5 years as head coach)

4. Personal Opinion on Other Coaches in Canada

I will gladly send you completed copies of the study results. Please indicate therefore on the last page whether or not these results would be of interest to you.

Thank you most sincerely for your cooperation.

Now turn to page 1 of the questionnaire.

1. COACH BACKGROUND INFORMATION

A. Personal Data

1. Name: _____ Date of birth: _____

Place of birth: _____ Country lived in the longest: _____

2. Marital Status: (Check (✓) one only)

single ☐ divorced or separated ☐

married ☐ widowed ☐

3. Number of children _____

4. Do you have tenure or a contract with your present club? _____

B. Training Data

1. Educational Data

High School Certificate, Degree or Diploma	Specialization if any	Institution or City	Year Granted

2. Soccer Playing Experience - more space for your responses overleaf.

LEVEL	NO. OF YEARS	POSITION PLAYED	AWARDS eg. MVP	CAPTAIN NO. OF YEARS	TITLES WON	REPRESENTATIVE HONOURS
High School						
College						
University						
Professional						
Other						

3. (a) Soccer Coaching Experience - again, more space for your responses overleaf.

LEVEL	NO. OF YEARS	COACHING AWARDS	TITLES WON INCLUDE DATES	APPOINTMENT HELD, eg. MANAGER, HEAD COACH, ASSISTANT COACH
High School				
College				
University				
Professional				
Other				

(b) Coaching Qualifications Held (include dates obtained)

LEVEL	C. S. A.
One	
Two	
Three	
Four	
Any Other, eg. from Germany, England, Scotland	

2. Soccer Playing Experience

3. (a) Soccer Coaching Experience

(c) Please indicate your present appointment and the number of years you have held this appointment.

Present appointment _____

Number of years 19 - July, 1981
(Month)

(d) Other coaching appointments held in the last five years.

CLUB	APPOINTMENT	DATES

(e) Other coaching experience, i.e., in other sports.

SPORT	LEVEL	NUMBER OF YEARS	POSITION HELD	TITLES WON

(f) Other coaching awards held. (Please list in the space provided.)

C. Present Appointment - Duties and Commitments

1. Time spent (on average) on coaching soccer during the season.

   a. Total time spent in practice/training not including preparation time.

      hours per week _____

   b. Time spent in preparation for practice/training.

      hours per week _____

   c. Time spent in organizing, promoting and general administration.

      hours per week _____

2. Time spent on soccer related activity in closed season?

	hours per day	total days
a. soccer camps/clinics		
b. coaching representative team		
c. organizing for this season		
d. scouting/recruiting for this season		
e. organizing and/or running a summer league		
f. coaching a summer league team		
g. individual player instruction		
h. any other (please state), e.g., promotions and PR work.		

3. I perceive my major role at this club as: (check (✓) one only)

   a. Team manager/coach ☐

   b. Club administrator ☐

   c. Educator ☐

   d. Any other ☐ Please state _____

2. INSTRUMENTS

A. Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (L. P. C.)

Think of a player with whom you can work least well. He may be a player you coach now or someone you have coached in the past. The player should be someone you have had the most difficulty in obtaining maximal performance in soccer situations. Place a check (✓) in the space which, in your mind, best describes this player on each of the pairs below. Please do all pairs. For example, if you think the player is somewhat neat you would answer below thus:

Neat								Not Neat
8	7	✓ 6	5	4	3	2	1	
Very neat	Quite neat	Somewhat neat	Slightly neat	Slightly untidy	Somewhat untidy	Quite untidy	Very untidy	

Pleasant	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Unpleasant
Friendly	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Unfriendly
Rejecting	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Accepting
Helpful	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Frustrating
Unenthusiastic	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Enthusiastic
Tense	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Relaxed
Distant	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Close
Cold	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Warm
Cooperative	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Uncooperative
Supportive	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Hostile
Boring	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Interesting
Quarrelsome	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Harmonious
Self-assured	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Hesitant
Efficient	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Inefficient
Gloomy	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Cheerful
Open	8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1	Guarded

B. Team Atmosphere Scale (T.A.)

Place a check (✓) in the space which, in your mind, best describes your team on each of the pairs below. Do all parts.

Pleasant	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1)	Unpleasant
Friendly	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1)	Unfriendly
Bad	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)	Good
Worthless	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)	Valuable
Distant	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)	Close
Cold	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)	Warm
Quarrelsome	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)	Harmonious
Self-assured	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1)	Hesitant
Efficient	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1)	Inefficient
Gloomy	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:___ (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8)	Cheerful

C. Self Rating Scale

How would you rate your own ability or effectiveness as a coach in the following categories? Please circle your response using the following scale:

1 very satisfied
2 satisfied
3 neutral
4 dissatisfied
5 very dissatisfied

1.	Winning Games	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Technical knowledge of the game	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Teaching ability	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Organizational ability	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Ability to motivate	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Interpersonal relations with team members	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Ability to select and position players	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Effectiveness in terms of making soccer an enjoyable experience for your players	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Effectiveness in terms of team morale	1	2	3	4	5
*10.	Effectiveness in utilizing talents of assistant coaches	1	2	3	4	5
*11.	Effectiveness in maintaining harmony on the coaching staff	1	2	3	4	5

*Leave blank if not applicable

D. Self Improvement Scale

Your coaching abilities are improved from season to season in a number of ways. I am interested in what you do personally, that in your opinion helps you improve most. As above, circle the appropriate number in each case and if you feel you cannot respond to any question, just leave it blank. If you have never or very seldom done the particular thing in any item, please circle "5" for "No help".

Use the following scale:

1 extremely helpful
2 very helpful
3 helps some
4 little help
5 no help

(REMEMBER - indicate what has actually helped you improve, not what you think should or might help.)

1.	Experience gained during our practices.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Experience gained during our games.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Talking with other coaches on our staff.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Talking with other managers/coaches.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Talking with other coaches from other teams.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Talking to other coaches in other sports.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Talking to our players or ex-players.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Watching other professional or amateur sides play, live.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Watching national sides play, live.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Watching other teams train/practice.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Watching games on T.V.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Watching other team sports live or on T.V.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Watching soccer films or instructional tapes.	1	2	3	4	5

Recall: Your answers should indicate what has actually helped you improve, not what you think should or might help.

14.	Watching video, films or tapes of our team.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Watching video, films or tapes of other teams.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Just thinking about the game, my team and how to improve what I'm doing.	1	2	3	4	5

		SA	AL	N	DL	SD
17.	Attending coaches courses, seminars or conferences on soccer.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Reading notes or manuals from coaching clinics or courses.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Reading soccer books about techniques and strategy or training methods.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Reading magazine articles on soccer.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Reading autobiographies or biographies written by professional players or managers about their experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Reading books about great coaches.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Listening to talks by researchers or reading reports of research studies about:					
	a. psychology of coaching	1	2	3	4	5
	b. physiology of exercise	1	2	3	4	5
	c. motor learning	1	2	3	4	5
	d. biomechanics or kinesiology	1	2	3	4	5
24.	My experience as a teacher of physical education (if applicable).	1	2	3	4	5
25.	My experience coaching other sports.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	If you think your coaching has improved out of doing something else (i.e., not included in this list) please describe it in the space below.	1	2	3	4	5

E. Team-Head Coach Relationship

Instructions

The following statements are based upon situations and specific problems with which coaches sometimes must concern themselves. The best answer to each statement is your personal choice. I have tried to cover a wide variety of coaching questions. You may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others; whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many coaches feel the same as you do. Please base your opinions upon your feelings and your actual behavior with respect to your coaching experience.

As before, circle the appropriate response using the following scale:

1 strongly agree
2 agree a little
3 neutral
4 disagree a little
5 strongly disagree

1. It is best to maintain a large social distance from the players in order to maintain a high level of authority.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Coaches should be concerned with discovering the individual athletes who violate team or social rules.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The player should always realize that coaches are the boss whether or not they are right and their decisions or regulations should never be questioned.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The coach has the right to set all rules and regulations and anyone who violates these rules must be disciplined.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The coach has enough problems trying to achieve a high performance level from his players and should not overly concern himself with an individual athlete's problem.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Players should report all grievances to the captain of the team in order that he may report them to the coach.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The best way to eliminate mistakes is to make the players do push-ups, laps or any form of physical exercise so that he will remember his mistakes and won't make them again.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Most players are motivated by threats or punishment such as laps, push-ups, etc.	1	2	3	4	5

		SA	A	N	D	SD
9.	Players are motivated by threats of demotion or of expulsion from the team.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Disciplinary action taken by the coach is easier and handled better if the players involved are not personally close to the coach.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Coaches should get to know their players slightly, but should not become friendly or warm with them.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Players should realize that the coach knows more than they do in the particular sport and should never ask "why?".	1	2	3	4	5
13.	A well disciplined team on and off the playing field or court usually has a better performance record.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	A well disciplined team makes the coach look better to the community at large.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	A rigid relationship with a player on and off the pitch should be one of the methods used by coaches to maintain respect and jurisdiction a coach deserves and needs in order to best perform his duties as coach.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	A coach who is too friendly with his players and does not remain somewhat detached from them is apt to lose his position of influence over the athlete.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	A coach should always keep his overall won-lost record in mind in order to see if his players view him as successful or not.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Coaches and club officials should be aware of trouble-makers in the club whether they are players or not.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Players who are trouble-makers in the club should be cut and released immediately.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	A coach should refrain from taking extreme position in any aspect of social or professional behavior because he must set a conservative example to his players and to other coaches.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	A coach should organize himself to the point that there can be absolutely no question in his mind or his players' minds about what is occurring whether it be during a game, during practice, or during a road trip.	1	2	3	4	5

		SA	A	N	D	SD
22.	Players recognize the position of authority of the coach and respond to forceful and direct criticism or threat of criticism in a desired direction.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Discipline in soccer helps create model citizens or at least helps develop individuals to take meaningful and worthwhile positions in society.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Players should not be encouraged to come and talk to the coach about problems in the attack or defense because this is the coach's concern. The player should be concerned with perfecting his techniques within the system.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	If more people would participate in soccer, they would be better able to discipline themselves in everyday life because of discipline learned from sport.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	No single individual - player or coach, is more important than the overall organization.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	The coach should react accordingly to strong criticism from the following:					
	a. the press and media	1	2	3	4	5
	b. the fans	1	2	3	4	5
	c. the players	1	2	3	4	5
	d. the organization	1	2	3	4	5
28.	My major priority as a soccer coach is:					
	a. to produce an entertaining team	1	2	3	4	5
	b. to produce a winning team	1	2	3	4	5
	c. to fill the stadium with fans every game.	1	2	3	4	5

N.B.: Your answer may be a combination of any, all, or none of the above. If so write your best answer in the space below.

3. WON-LOST RECORD

A. From your league position tables as from your own records, please complete the following and include all games played in the seasons below when you were head coach.

Season	Number of Games		
	Won	Drawn	Lost
1975-76			
1976-77			
1977-78			
1978-79			
1979-80			

If you wish to express this data in percentage form please do so here _____% games WON.

B. Who is responsible for Hiring and Firing the players at your club?

Myself as Head Coach ☐ Club Owner ☐

If neither of the above, please answer below.

4. PERSONAL OPINION ON OTHER COACHES

I feel the 5 best coaches in North American Soccer today are:
(not in any order of merit; do not include yourself)

NAME	CLUB
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

FINALLY: (Delete as necessary)

I would/would not like a copy of the discussion and completed results of this study.

_____ (Signature) _____ (Date)

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND ASSISTANCE.

SANDY GORDON

APPENDIX C

INDEX OF EFFECTIVENESS

EFFECTIVENESS INDEX

	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
	1	2	3
1. KNOWLEDGE OF THE GAME e.g., what he knows about the game; requirement of professional players individually; tactics involved in all positions on the field; appreciation of the inside or hidden 'knowledge' that cannot be gleaned from books, etc.	1	2	3
2. COACHING ABILITY i.e., ability to put across the above to his players.	1	2	3
3. ORGANIZATIONAL ABILITY e.g., training schedules; daily routines in the club; work of assistant coaches/trainers; training practices.	1	2	3
4. MOTIVATIONAL ABILITY i.e., the ability to bring out the best in players when it matters; maintain and sustain the ambition in players; making players 'want to play'; raise morale and keep it high in the team and in individuals.	1	2	3
5. MAN MANAGEMENT i.e., empathetic understanding with players; good interpersonal relationship with individuals and the team; capability to discipline the team and individuals on and off the field.	1	2	3
6. SCOUTING/TALENT SPOTTING i.e., ability to set up an effective channel for new players to be found or acquisitioned; management of scouts; personally buying/selling players.	1	2	3

On this scale an effective manager or coach would score

15 - 18 pts.

10 - 15 pts. - moderately effective?

< 10 - not effective?

This index is only a suggestion - you'll have a far better idea of what I'm trying to get at than me! Please feel free to alter or change this index.

APPENDIX D

TABLES

Table 1. Effectiveness and Other Sports Coaching Experience

	Effective	Non-effective	Total	
Experience	26	7	33	
No Experience	5	2	7	
	31	9	40	p = 0.6719

Table 2. Time Spent on Soccer in and Out of the Season

	In Season (Mean Hours per Week)	Out of Season (Total Mean Hours)
Professional	55.5	2844.67
CIAU	28.57	4300.36
CSA	28.09	4549.82
USSF	33.72	2633.56
	p = 0.0146	p = 0.0845

Table 3. Coach Status and LPC Measures

	Professional	CIAU	CSA	USSF	Total
Task Oriented	3	4	4	6	17
Interpersonally Oriented	3	6	14	9	32
In Between	0	3	4	3	10
	6	13	22	18	59

p = 0.6953

Table 4. Coach Status and Team Atmosphere Measures

	Professional	CIAU	CSA	USSF	Total
Highly Harmonious	1	5	3	5	14
Harmonious	5	7	13	11	36
Moderately Harmonious	0	2	5	1	8
Not Harmonious	0	0	1	1	2
	6	14	22	18	60

p = 0.6402

Table 5. Coach Status and Self Rating Measures

	Professional	CIAU	CSA	USSF	Total
Satisfied	4	5	13	11	33
Neutral	1	8	6	5	20
Dissatisfied	1	1	3	2	7
	6	14	22	18	60

p = .5404

Table 6. Self Improvement Scale Measures (Continued)

	Most Helpful	Least Helpful
Professional		
	5. Watching National sides play live.	5. Reading magazine articles on soccer.
	6. Watching video, films or tapes of our team.	6. Reading autobiographies on soccer.
	7. Talking to our players or ex-players.	7. Reading books about great coaches.
	8. Watching other teams train or practice.	8. Talking with other managers and coaches.
CIAU		
	5. Talking with other coaches on our staff.	5. Watching other team sports live or on T.V.
	6. Attending coaches courses, seminars or conferences on soccer.	6. Watching other teams train/practice.
	7. Reading notes or manuals from coaching clinics or courses.	7. Reading sports psychology articles.
	8. Experience gained during own practices.	8. Reading articles on biomechanics or kinesiology.
CSA		
	5. Experience gained during own practices.	5. Reading books about great coaches.
	6. Just thinking about the game, my team and how to improve what I'm doing.	6. Talking with other coaches on our staff.
	7. Talking to our players or ex-players.	7. Watching video, films or tapes of other teams.
	8. Watching other teams train/practice.	8. Talking to other coaches from other teams.
USSF		
	5. Watching video, films or tapes of our teams.	5. Reading articles on biomechanics, etc.
	6. Watching other teams train/practice.	6. My experience coaching other sports.
	7. Reading soccer books about techniques and strategy or training methods.	7. Watching national sides play live.
	8. Doing other things not mentioned on the list.	8. Talking to other coaches in other sports.

Table 6. Self Improvement Scale Measures (Continued)

	Most Helpful	Least Helpful
Total Amateur		
5.	Talking to our players or ex-players.	My experience coaching other sports.
6.	Watching other professional or amateur sides play live.	Watching video, films or tapes of other teams.
7.	Watching national sides play live.	Talking with other coaches on our staff.
8.	Watching video, films or tapes or our teams.	My experience as a teacher of physical education.

Table 7. Coach Status and Responsibility for Recruiting Players

	Myself as Head Coach	Club Owner	Other	Total
Professional	6	0	0	6
CIAU	13	0	1	14
CSA	19	0	1	20
USSF	15	1	1	17
	53	1	3	57

p = 0.8263

Table 8. Effectiveness and Team Atmosphere

	Effective	Non-effective	Total
Highly Harmonious	10	4	14
Harmonious	29	7	36
Mod. Harmonious	6	2	8
Not Harmonious	1	1	2
	46	14	60

p = 0.7228

Table 9. Effectiveness and Coach Role Perception

	Effective	Non-effective	Total
Manager/Coach	35	10	45
Administrator	0	2	2
Educator	5	1	6
Other	6	1	7
	46	14	60

p = 0.0696

Table 10. Effectiveness and Time Spent on Soccer In and Out of Season

	In Season (Mean Hours per Week)	Out of Season (Mean Total Hours)
Effective	33.14	3350.5
Non-effective	27.84	4542.4
	p = 0.068	p = 0.280

Table 11. Effectiveness and Rating by CSA Experts

	Effective	Non-effective	Total
Good	8	4	12
Average	7	2	9
	15	6	21

p = 0.5770

Table 12. Effectiveness and Coaching Qualifications

	Effective	Non-effective	Total
Level 1	0	2	3
USSF or 2	3	1	4
CSA 3	3	0	3
Level 4	9	3	12
Certified Pre-Lim	7	2	9
Full Badge	20	4	24
	42	12	54

p = 0.1376

Table 13. Effectiveness and Educational Data

	Effectiveness	Non-effective	Total
High School Learning Certificate	9	2	11
Diploma	8	2	10
Bachelor Degree	4	3	7
Masters Degree	17	2	19
Ph.D.	6	4	10
	44	13	57

$p = 0.2788$

Table 14. Effectiveness and Number of Years Coaching and Playing Experience

	Coaching Mean Years	Playing Mean Years
Effective	14.83	13.85
Non-effective	8.78	11.79
	$p = 0.730$	$p = 0.906$

Table 15. Authoritarianism and Coach Age: Coaching Experience, Playing Experience and Number of Years as Captain

	Age Mean Years	Coaching Experience Mean Years	Playing Experience Mean Years	Years Captain Mean Years
Authoritarian	40.19	11.56	12.83	3.72
Non-authoritarian	39.80	14.21	13.60	2.76
	p = 0.68	p = 0.78	p = 1.0	p = .78

Table 16. Authoritarianism Role at the Club and Job Tenure

	Role at Club				Job Tenure	
	Manager/ Coach	Administrator	Educator	Other	Yes	No
Authoritarian	14	1	0	3	14	4
Non-authoritarian	31	1	6	4	27	13
	45	2	6	7	41	17
	p = 0.3169				p = 0.426	

Table 17. Leadership Style and Years of Coaching and Playing Experience

	Coaching Experience (Mean Years)	Playing Experience (Mean Years)
Task Oriented	15	12.82
Interpersonally Oriented	13.09 (p = 0.664)	13.63 (p = 0.720)

Table 18. Leadership Style and Team Atmosphere

	Task Oriented	Interpersonally Oriented	Total	
Highly Harmonious	3	7	10	
Harmonious	10	21	31	
Moderately Harmonious	4	2	6	
Not Harmonious	0	2	2	
	17	32	49	p = 0.2671

Table 19. Leadership Style Role at the Club and Job Tenure

	Role at the Club				Job Tenure	
	Manager/ Coach	Administrator	Educator	Other	Yes	No
Task Oriented	13	1	3	0	12	4
Inter. Oriented	24	1	3	4	25	6
	37	2	6	4	37	10
	p = 0.40				p = 0.65	

Table 20. Leadership Style Time Spent Coaching In and Out of Season

	In Season (Mean Hours per Week)	Out of Season (Total Mean Hours)
Task Oriented	29.88	3655.94
Interpersonally Oriented	34.93	3664.90
	p = 0.160	p = 0.587

Table 21. Leadership Style and Marital Status

	Single	Married	Divorced or Separated	Total	
Task Oriented	1	14	1	16	
Interpersonally Oriented	2	26	3	31	
	3	40	4	47	p = 0.92